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Inder
MAP OF INDIA.
AFGHANISTAN
LAHORE
TIBET
DELHI
AJMEER
AGRA
OUDE
RAJPOOTANA
SINDE
MALWA
GUJERAT
GUNDWANA
CANDEISH
BERAR
AURUNGABAD
HYDERABAD
REJAPOOR
BALAGHAUT
MYSORE
MALABAR
Madras
Madura
Cochin
Candy
BENGAL
INDIAN OCEAN
BURMESE EMPIRE

THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER;

CONTAINING

Particular Descriptions

OF THE

EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, PRINCIPALITIES, PROVINCES, CITIES, TOWNS, DISTRICTS, FORTRESSES, HARBOURS, RIVERS, LAKES, &c.

OF

HINDOSTAN,

46148

AND THE ADJACENT COUNTRIES.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES,

AND THE

EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO;

TOGETHER WITH

SKETCHES OF THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, INSTITUTIONS, AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, REVENUES, POPULATION, CASTES, RELIGION, HISTORY, &c.

OF THEIR

VARIOUS INHABITANTS.

By WALTER HAMILTON.

Bound in two volumes

SECOND EDITION.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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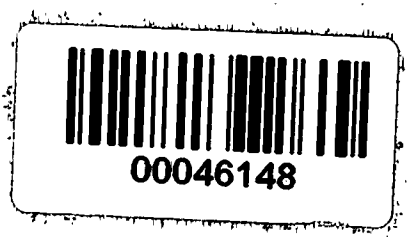

LONDON
PRINTED BY J. L. COX, GREAT QUEEN STREET, LINCOLN'S-INN FIELDS.

TO

WILLIAM ASTELL, Esq., Chairman;

JOHN LOCH, Esq., Deputy-Chairman;

AND

THE HONOURABLE COURT OF DIRECTORS

OF

The East-India Company,

&c. &c. &c.

THIS WORK

IS, WITH THEIR PERMISSION, RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED

BY THEIR MUCH OBLIGED

AND MOST OBEDIENT HUMBLE SERVANT,

THE AUTHOR.

PREFACE.

THE following work is intended to form a summary and popular account of India, and its various inhabitants, adapted principally for the perusal of those who have never visited that quarter of the world, and whose leisure has not admitted of their examining the numerous volumes through which the local descriptions are dispersed. Formerly the unceasing changes among the native powers, the vicissitudes of their politics, and the perpetual fluctuation of their boundaries, rendered the most accurate account that could be given, only suited to the particular period in which it was written; but since the establishment of the British federal system in 1818, the tranquillity of Hindostan has been rarely disturbed by war, and its territorial mutation quite insignificant. The dominions of several native chiefs continue still perplexed and intermingled, and the extent of their respective jurisdictions ill defined, but these obstacles are not of sufficient weight to preclude an attempt to class the whole alphabetically.

With respect to India beyond the Ganges, the unexpected result of the late Burmese war, begun about a small muddy island in the bay of Bengal, and concluded with the complete establishment of British predominance in that remote quarter, has been the acquisition of much valuable information regarding the condition of its interior, hitherto a region of speculation and conjecture. In the Eastern Archipelago no change of any importance has taken place since the publication of the first

edition of this work in 1815, with exception of the interchange of some colonies with the Dutch in 1825, but owing to the temporary government of many islands by British functionaries much accurate knowledge, both geographical and statistical, has been since acquired.

To form a geographical basis, Mr. Arrowsmith's six sheet map of Hindostan, and his four sheet chart of the Eastern seas have been selected, but other valuable maps and charts subsequently executed have also been consulted. Within these limits the following countries are comprehended.

WEST OF THE INDUS.

Cabul, Candahar, Baloochistan, Caffristan, and all Afghanistan.

IN HINDOSTAN PROPER.

The provinces of Bengal, Bahar, Allahabad, Oude, Agra, Delhi, Lahore, Cashmere, Ajmeer, Mooltan, Cutch, Gujerat, and Malwa.

IN THE DECCAN.

The provinces of Gundwana, Orissa, the Northern Circars, Candeish, Berar, Beeder, Hyderabad, Aurungabad, and Bejapoor.

INDIA SOUTH OF THE KRISHNA RIVER.

Canara, Malabar, Cochin, Travancore, the Balaghaut Ceded Districts, Mysore, Coimbatoor, Salem and the Barramahal, and the Carnatic.

IN NORTHERN HINDOSTAN.

The country between the Sutuleje and Jumna, Gurwal or Serinagur, the sources of the Ganges, Kumaon, Painkhandi, Bhutant, the Nepaulese dominions, Sikkim, and also Bootan.

NORTH OF THE HIMALAYA.

Tibet and Lahdack.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

Ava and the Burmese Empire, Laos or the Shan country, Pegu, Arracan, the British provinces south of Rangoon, Siam, the peninsula of Malacca, Assam and the adjacent states, Cachar, Munipoor, Tunquin, Cochin China, Cambodia, Siampa, &c.

THE EASTERN ISLES.

Sumatra, Java and the Sunda chain, Borneo, Celebes, and Gilolo, the Moluccas, New Guinea and the Papuan Isles, Magindanao, the Philippines, &c., and also the island of Ceylon.

In order to give distinctness and application to the facts collected, Hindostan has been partitioned in the large territorial divisions above enumerated, whose relative positions and extent will be best learned from an inspection of the prefixed map. In Hindostan Proper and the Deccan, the old Mogul provinces of Abul Fazel have been continued, as, notwithstanding the many changes they have experienced, they still maintain their place in the public mind, and are sufficiently accurate for the purpose contemplated. With respect to the south of India, as it has been for almost thirty years under the direct government of British functionaries, their local arrangements have been adhered to.

In arranging the alphabetical distribution, the usual difficulty resulting from the great variety of appellations given to the same place by Hindoos, Mahomedans and Europeans, has been experienced, and not completely surmounted. To obviate it, as much as possible, the whole of Mr. Arrowsmith's names have been adopted, as being those most universally known, and to facilitate the discovery of their places on the map. In many of the most remarkable instances, the original denomination is

also given according to Sir William Jones's orthographical system; but, although a name be not strictly applicable, it is desirable it should remain permanent, as a deviation even to more appropriate, causes much confusion. Indeed all over the East, owing to the fluctuating boundaries of the native states, the rule has been always to designate rather by the name of city, where the king or governor resided, than by any general name taken from the whole country which he governed. Another objection to an alphabetical description of a country, is that the details are unconnected, being dispersed and separated over different parts of the book, which is certainly against an arrangement in other respects remarkably convenient. To remedy this defect, in some degree, a provincial index has been added, exhibiting the names of the towns, &c. contained within the limits of the large territorial divisions and islands, to which reference may be made for further information regarding any particular portions of space.

The deities of the Hindoos have a still greater variety of names, or rather epithets (Vishnu for example has one thousand) than their towns: the most common have been preferred and adhered to throughout, and the same plan has been followed with regard to the designations of persons, tribes, and castes. In general, what appeared most interesting and important with a view to political application, or illustrative of the state of society, has been selected, and such usages described as have subsisted for the greatest length of time with the fewest variations or infringements. In composing the work, Oriental terms have been usually avoided, but from the nature of the subject could not be wholly dispensed with. A few of the most difficult will be found explained in the short glossary annexed, others in the text within a parenthesis as they occur. The plan usually followed is that of Brooks', Crutwell's, and other Gazetteers,

which on account of the great number of different articles, and the consequent necessity for abbreviation, does not admit of minute detail, or the investigation of disputed facts. From this cause also the historical portion has in many instances been abridged nearly to a chronological series of sovereigns and remarkable events.

The materials from which this work has been composed, consist of printed documents generally accessible to the public, and manuscript records deposited at the India Board, regarding which a few explanatory observations will be necessary. The British government in India is one which records and reports to England its most minute transactions, furnishing a basis for accurate history beyond those of any other state. In conformity with this principle, it is the practice of each presidency to transmit half-yearly, or according to the exigence more frequent reports in the political, financial, and judicial, military, public, legal, and ecclesiastical departments, accompanied with copies of the correspondence that has taken place with their subordinate functionaries. These official records are extremely voluminous, but their contents rarely bear directly on statistical subjects, the discussions having generally originated in some accidental irregularities, such as the robbery of treasure, disputed boundaries, the irruption of foreign tribes, defalcation of the revenue, the pupillage of native chiefs, and other matters of difficult adjustment, brought under the notice of the India Board and Court of Directors. Where no event of the nature above alluded to has taken place, and the tranquillity of the province has continued undisturbed by war or controversy, no correspondence has resulted; and its internal condition has remained so completely unnoticed, that the circumstances of several of the Company's old districts of great

wealth and population are less generally known than those of remote tracts, the very names of which are recent discoveries.

At the conclusion of the second volume a list of these and other authorities will be found, comprehending a large proportion of the ablest of the Company's servants, civil, military, and medical. Besides "Public Manuscript Documents," access to which was procured him by the late Right Honourable Mr. Canning, while President of the Board of Control, the author has been favoured with two most important private communications, which have greatly enhanced the value of the present edition. The first consists of a series of extracts from the manuscript journal of John Fullarton, Esq. of Great Stanhope-street, Hyde Park, the only European who has ever made the complete tour of Hindostan, from the Brahmaputra to Bombay, from the Himalaya Mountains to the Straits of Ceylon. These travels occupied some portions of 1817 and 1818, the half of 1819, and the whole of 1820, were performed deliberately, and with such an establishment of horses, elephants, camels, and tents, as enabled him to encamp on any spot, and leave no worthy object of curiosity uninvestigated. It is to be regretted the original journal from which these extracts were made has never been published, and the estimation attached to them will be proved by the frequency of reference.

The other document, consisting of seven large folio manuscript volumes, was received from Sir John Malcolm, K.C.B., the indefatigable promoter of every measure that can either benefit or illustrate India. These contain separate descriptions of above 6,500 towns, villages, hamlets, rivers, and mountains in Central Hindostan and the Deccan; but the imperative necessity of condensation only permitted the selection of such

as were remarkable for their size, local situation, temples, public works, or any other extraordinary feature.

In specifying the extent of countries, the whole length, but only the average breadth is given, to enable the reader to ascertain the probable area in square miles without much trouble. In an arrangement of this nature strict accuracy cannot be expected; but it appears less vague than the usual mode of stating the extreme length and extreme breadth; an approximation to the reality being all that is wanted. The same observation applies to the population of countries that have not yet been subjected to strict examination. When such occur, a comparison of their peculiar circumstances is instituted with those of the adjacent provinces, the population of which is better known, and an estimate computed from the result; where the number of inhabitants has been established on probable grounds, it is particularly mentioned. To facilitate the discovery of a place on the map, besides its latitude and longitude, its nearest distance from some distinguished city is inserted, and also the province within the limits of which it is comprehended. The east, west, north, and south sides of rivers, and the compass directions, in a great majority of cases, refer to their positions in Mr. Arrowsmith's map; the length of the rivers, including windings, are calculated according to the rules laid down in Major Rennell's Memoir. When not otherwise specified, the standard of distance and dimension is invariably the English mile, sixty-nine and a half to the degree.

Many of the above particulars, however, will require future correction, as the very best maps hitherto published, although right in the main outlines, are still deficient in accuracy as to the relative position of places. Nor will this defect be adequately rectified until the completion of the East-India Company's Atlas of India, constructed from trigonometrical survey,

begun by Col. Mackenzie, in A.D. 1800, and still in progress under Col. Hodgson, the surveyor-general of India. It is founded on the triangulation which Col. Lambton extended over the south of India, in connexion with his operations for determining the measurement of an arch of the meridian, and continued since his death by Capt. Everest. This noble monument of the Company's liberality and regard for accurate science is executed on a scale of four English miles to the inch; and judging from the eleven sheets already published, will, when finished, cover above 1,200 square feet.

The prefixed map exhibits the large provinces into which Hindostan, for the convenience of reference, has been divided; but being constructed on so minute a scale, no delineation of the boundaries that distinguish the native and British districts could be attempted. With respect to the first, no native state has yet been brought to understand the advantages we are accustomed to see in a compact territory and well-defined frontier; and with regard to the latter, the limits of none can as yet be considered as finally adjusted. Owing to this uncertainty, a town may be assigned to one jurisdiction, which in reality belongs to another; but the mistake is of no essential importance, and many similar corrections must hereafter be required before the official limits acquire such precision as to preclude the necessity of future revision. In like manner, the local functionaries may hereafter see much to amend with regard to the comparative importance of the towns selected, some, perhaps, having now no existence, although of great historical notoriety, while others may appear too insignificant to deserve insertion where others of greater modern magnitude have been omitted.

To each description of any consequence the authorities upon which it is founded are carefully subjoined in succession, according to their relative importance, the author being particularly

desirous to give the credit where it is justly due, as well as to establish the high character of the sources from whence his original information has been drawn. But no person is to be considered wholly responsible for any article, the materials being so intimately blended with each other, and the result of the author's own experience during a ten years' residence in India, that it would be impossible to define the limits of the respective properties. In various cases the narrative is given as closely as the necessity of condensing many thousand pages into a small compass would permit; in others it has been necessary to compare contradictory and conflicting testimonies, and to select that which appeared to rest on the most solid foundation. Conciseness has been particularly aimed at, and the endeavour to effect it has added greatly to the labour; for it is easy to write a description of a country when the materials are scanty, not so when the mass has been accumulating for half a century. In the official correspondence of the different presidencies the surveys and reports of one functionary are sometimes incorporated with those of another, so that occasionally the statement of one public officer cannot be discriminated from those of another; but notwithstanding these difficulties it will be clearly perceptible that the details of this work were generally collected under circumstances singularly favourable for the acquisition of accurate information, and by persons the best qualified, from length of service, residence on the spot, and established reputation, to form a correct judgment of their authenticity.

London, 23d April 1828.

THE

EAST-INDIA GAZETTEER,

&c. &c.

ABORS.

Abdon.—One of the small Papuan isles, about three miles in circumference, situated to the north of Wageeoo, and rising 200 feet above the level of the sea. It abounds with fish and turtle, on which the inhabitants subsist, as they do not cultivate the land. Lat. 0° 30′ N., lon. 131° 15′ E.

Abdulpoor.—A town in the province of Beeder, sixty-three miles N.E., from Bejapoor, lat. 17° 12′ N., lon. 76° 41′ E.

Aboo *(Abooghur, or Arbuda).*—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated near a chain of lofty mountains, which in 1820 was a dependency of the Sarowy Rajas, but generally possessed by some rebellious relation. Lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E., fifty-six miles W. by S. from Odeypoor.

The height of Aboo, indicated by the barometer, has been estimated at 5,000 feet, and during the ascent, in thirty-six hours' travelling, the thermometer declined from 108° on the plains of Marwar, to 60° Fahrenheit on the summit of Aboo, under an almost vertical sun; indeed, the temperature is so mild that some European fruits are indigenous.

On the Aboo mountains are many Saiva and Jain inscriptions, the most ancient temple having been dedicated to Siva as Achileswara, so early as the seventh century. Jain temples of the eleventh century also occur; but the most numerous and important are monuments belonging to the thirteenth century, erected to deified Jain saints. From the thirteenth century Jain and Saiva inscriptions predominate alternately until the present century. Those of the Sarowy family are Saiva. The hill itself is said to have been brought from the Himalaya, by the sage Vasishta, in order that he might continue his devotions on the spot he had been accustomed to.—*(Tod, Jackson, Elphinstone, &c.)*

Abors *(or Abars).*—A rude tribe bordering on Assam, situated above the junction of the Dihong with the main trunk of the Brahmaputra river. The hills on the right bank of the river belong to the Paisal and Maying Abors; those on the left, to Padow, Silloo, Meboo, and Golemar. In 1826, when visited by a British officer, enmity, but not actual warfare, subsisted between the tribes on the opposite banks. Their weapons are a bow and poisoned arrows, a light spear, and a heavy sharp sword, the dhaw of the Singphos.

This tribe eat of every thing, pure and impure, except beef, the eaters of which they abhor. They drink a spirituous liquor of their own distillation; salt, cloth, and tobacco are in great request. They exhibit few traces of religion, but are said to sacrifice animals at the shrine of a deity named Ap-hoom, possibly the

Om of the Lama Tibetians. Their dress is principally made from the bark of the uddal tree; they also wear ornamented cane caps, beads, blankets, and blanket cloaks. The Abors appear to have been in the practice of levying contributions on the Assamese of the plains, and of carrying them into captivity. According to the latest information the Abor country is situated to the north of the Brahmaputra about lat. 28°, and between 93° and 94° E.

ACBERPOOR *(Acbarpura)*.—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, thirty-six miles S.E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 26° 26′ N., lon. 82° 25′ E.

ACBERPOOR *(Acbarpura)*.—A town in the Agra province, twenty-five miles W.S.W. from Caunpoor. Lat. 26° 23′ N., long. 79° 52′ E.

ACESINES RIVER.—See CHINAUB.

ACHEEN.

(Achi).—A petty state in the north-western extremity of the island of Sumatra, bordering on the country of the Battas, but not extending inland above fifty miles to the south-east. On the western coast, where its influence was formerly predominant, it now possesses no further than Baroos, and even there, and at the intermediate posts, the power of the Acheenese chief is little more than nominal. In 1820 Tamiang was the reputed boundary on the eastern and Sinkel on the western coast of Sumatra.

The air is comparatively healthy, the country being more free from jungle and stagnant water than most other parts of Sumatra. The degree of insalubrity, however, attending localities in this climate, is known to alter so frequently, from inscrutable causes, that a person who has resided two or three years on a spot cannot pretend to form a judgment.

The soil is light and fertile, and produces abundance of rice, excellent vegetables, much cotton, and the finest tropical fruits. Cattle, and other articles of provision, are plenty, and reasonable in price. In this province are found almost all the animals enumerated in the general description of Sumatra, and elephants (probably imported ones) are here found domesticated.

Although no longer the great mart of eastern commodities, Acheen still carries on a considerable trade, both with European merchants and the natives of the coast of that quarter of India called Telinga, but which by the Malays is called Kling, and applied to the whole coast of Coromandel. These supply it with salt, cotton piece goods, and receive in return, gold dust, raw silk of an inferior quality, betel-nut, patch leaf, pepper, sulphur, camphor, and benzoin. In the Acheenese territories there is a considerable manufacture of a thick species of cotton cloth, and of striped and checked stuffs. They also weave rich and handsome silk pieces; but this fabric has latterly declined, owing to the failure of the breed of silk-worms, and also to the decay of industry among the inhabitants, who were formerly bold and expert navigators. Payments are commonly made in gold dust, but there is also a small thin adulterated gold coin, rudely stamped with Arabic characters, called mass. The crown revenues arise from export and import duties, which are generally levied on the goods in the first instance, and of course fluctuate considerably. Besides this source, the king, being the chief merchant, gains considerably by monopolies, managed by the shahbunder, or master attendant, under whose jurisdiction all commercial transactions are placed.

The government is hereditary, and more or less arbitrary, in proportion to the talents of the reigning prince, who usually maintains a guard of 100 sepoys from the Coromandel coast. At the king's feet sits a woman, to whom he makes known his pleasure; by her it is communicated to an eunuch who sits next to her, and by him to an officer named Kajurang Goodang, who proclaims it aloud to

the assembly. Sultan Allah ud Deen, who reigned in 1784, when Capt. Forrest visited his court, had travelled, and had been a considerable time in the Mauritius, where he had been driven when proceeding on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Besides the Malay, he spoke the French and Portuguese, and understood the casting of cannon and bomb-shells. His vizier was a Turk from Constantinople.

The country is populous for a native state, but the number of inhabitants has never been satisfactorily ascertained. They are taller and stouter than the generality of Sumatrans; but they cannot be considered as a genuine people, being rather a mixture of Battas and Malays with Chulias, by whom, in all ages, their ports were frequented. In the city of Acheen their conduct depends much on the example of the reigning monarch, which is often narrow, extortionary, and oppressive. The language consists of a mixture of Malay and Batta with all the jargons used by the eastern Mahomedans, whether Hindostany, Arab-Tamul, or Moplay, to which last-mentioned people the Acheenese have a considerable resemblance; but in writing they use the Malay character. In religion they are strict Mahomedans, and the severity of their punishments is horrible; but, notwithstanding so much apparent discouragement, both from law and prejudice, all travellers agree in representing the Acheenese as one of the most dishonest and flagitious nations of the east, which character the history of their government tends strongly to corroborate.

The Acheenese territories were visited by the Portuguese in 1509, when Diego Lopez Siqueira cast anchor at Pedeer, a principal sea-port on this part of Sumatra. Even at this early stage of their acquaintance, hostilities between the two nations commenced, and continued, with little cessation, until the Portuguese lost Malacca in 1641. In the course of these wars it is difficult to determine which of the two is the more astonishing, the vigorous stand made by such a handful of men as the whole Portuguese force consisted of, or the prodigious resources and perseverance of the Acheenese monarchs.

About A.D. 1586 the consequence of the Acheen monarchy had attained its greatest height. Its friendship was courted by the most considerable eastern potentates, and no city in India enjoyed a more flourishing commerce. The customs of the port being moderate, it was crowded with merchants from all parts; and although the Portuguese and their ships were continually plundered, yet those belonging to every Asiatic power appear to have enjoyed perfect security in the prosecution of their traffic. With respect to the government, the nobles, or Orang Cayos, formed a powerful counterpoise to the authority of the king. They were rich, had numerous followers, and cannon planted at the gates of their houses.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century the Hollanders began to navigate the Indian seas, and in the year 1600 some of their ships arrived at Acheen, where they were nearly cut off by treachery. The first English ships, under Capt. Lancaster, visited Acheen in 1602, and were received by the king with abundant respect and ceremony, usually proportioned by the Acheenese sovereigns to the number of vessels and apparent strength of their foreign guests.

In 1607, Peducka Siri, the reigning sultan, assumed the title of sovereign of Acheen, and of the countries of Aroo, Delhi, Johore, Paham, Queda, and Pera, on one side; and of Baroos, Passaman, Ticoa, Sileda, and Priaman, on the other. In his answer to a letter from King James, in 1613, he styles himself King of all Sumatra, a name and idea which, if they exist in the original, he must have learned from his European connexions. In that letter he expresses a strong desire that the King of England would send him out one of his countrywomen for a wife, and pro-

nised to make her eldest son king of all the pepper countries. The French first visited Acheen under Commodore Beaulieu, in 1621.

In the year 1640 the Dutch with twelve men of war, and the Sultan of Acheen with twenty-five gallies, appeared before Malacca, which they had for so many years harassed, and the following year it was wrested from the Portuguese, who had so long, and under such difficulties, maintained it. But, as if the opposition of the Portuguese power, which first occasioned the rise of Acheen, was also necessary to its continuance, the splendour and consequence of the kingdom from that period rapidly declined, and in proportion its history became obscure. Through the subsequent weakness of the government, and the encroachments of the Dutch, the extent of its ancient dominion was much contracted.

The year 1641 was marked by the death of Sultan Peducka Siri, one of the most powerful and cruel sovereigns, who, leaving no male heirs, was peaceably succeeded by his queen, which commences a new era in the history of the state, as the succession continued until 1700 in the female line; the Acheenese being accustomed and reconciled to this species of government, which they found more lenient than that of their kings. The last queen died in 1700, when a priest found means, by his intrigues, to acquire the uneasy sovereignty, which, during the whole of the eighteenth century, continued a hot-bed of intrigue, treachery, and sanguinary revolutions.

In 1813 this principality was in a complete state of anarchy and dissolution, every port and village having been occupied by petty usurpers, who subsisted by piracy and smuggling. In 1814, Capt. Canning was sent from Bengal to investigate and adjust the existing differences, but was treated by Jowaher Allum (who died in 1823), the reigning sovereign, with the greatest contempt. Soon afterwards this monarch (whose ancestor was, by Queen Elizabeth, designated a great and puissant prince) was compelled to abdicate the throne in favour of Syf ul Alum, the son of a shop-keeper at Prince of Wales' Island. In this condition matters remained until 1819, when the usurper was ordered to return to Prince of Wales' Island, and the deposed chief restored. In 1820 Mr. Sartorius was deputed to Acheen, which he found in the most wretched condition; the king's authority being reduced to a mere nullity, and having only nominal possession of one small spot within the limits of his reputed dominions. A commercial treaty had been concluded and ratified, but in the distracted state of Acheen not the slightest good was likely to result, unless supported by military protection to the king, and a direct, active, and continued interference.—(*Marsden, Leyden, Forrest, Elmore, Gov. Phillips, Capt. Canning, Sartorius, &c.*)

Acheen.—A town situated at the north-western extremity of Sumatra, the capital of a principality of the same name, lat. 5° 35′ N., lon. 95° 45′ E.

This place stands on a river about a league from the sea, near the N.W. point of the island, where the shipping lies in a road, rendered secure by the shelter of several islands. It is described as populous, containing about 8,000 houses, built of bamboos and rough timber, and raised on piles. The sultan's palace is a rude piece of architecture, calculated to resist the attacks of external enemies, and for that purpose surrounded with a moat and strong walls. Near the gate are several pieces of ordnance of an extraordinary size, of which some are Portuguese, but two in particular of English origin: they were sent by King James the First to the reigning monarch of Acheen, and have still the founder's name and the date legible. The diameter of the bore of one is eighteen inches, and the other twenty-two. Their strength, however, does not at all correspond with their calibre, nor do they seem in other

respects of adequate dimensions. James, who abhorred bloodshed himself, was resolved that his present should not be the instrument of it in others.

The commerce of Acheen is now inconsiderable, and the king (when he has the power) the only merchant, as is usual in this quarter of the world. The chief exports are brimstone, betel-nut, rattans, benzoin, camphor, gold dust, pepper, and horses; the imports, opium, salt, piece goods, muslin, &c.—(*Marsden, Forrest, Elmore, &c.*)

ADAM'S PEAK *(named by the natives Samanilla).*—A lofty mountain in the interior of Ceylon, situated about fifty miles E.S.E. from Columbo, and by barometrical observation about 6,152 feet high. Lat. 6° 47′ N., lon. 80° 32′ E.

In ascending the road follows the windings of the Caltura river, which, at the distance of two miles from Batugedera, receives the Magelli, two chains in breadth at the confluence. One portion of the ascent is over an enormous rock, into which four flights, consisting of 127 steps, have been cut. The apex of the mountain is a distinct rock, which stands in the middle of an enclosure about seven feet above the level ground. On its top is the impression of the foot of Buddha, stamped by that incarnation when he first visited Ceylon. To mortal eyes it appears a superficial hollow, five feet three and three-quarter inches long, by two feet five inches wide, having a margin of brass studded with a few gems of little value. There is nothing else on the summit worthy notice, but the view from thence is singularly magnificent. On the one side a vast extent of wooded hills like an ocean of forest is seen; while on the other only the tops of the hills are perceptible, rising over the fogs like a number of small islands covered with trees.

On the 18th April 1817, at six in the evening, the thermometer stood at 52°, and the barometer (a short one) at 23° 70′; next day at seven in the morning, the first stood at 58°, and the last at 23° 75′. About midnight the thermometer stood at 51°, and never fell lower, the air being agitated by a gentle wind from the N.N.E. The name of Adam's Peak was probably first applied by the Mahommedans, who assert that Adam here lamented his expulsion from Paradise, standing on one foot until he was pardoned.—(*J. Davy, &c.*)

ADANAD *(Adinatha).*—A town in the province of Malabar, division of Shirnada, celebrated as the throne of the Alvangheri Tamburacul, or chief of the Namburies, who are the Brahmins of Malabar.

These Namburies will neither eat nor drink with the Brahmins of other countries; but, like other Brahmins, they marry and live with their wives, of whom they take as many as they are able to support. A Namburie's children are always considered as his heirs; but in order to prevent their losing dignity by becoming too numerous, the younger sons of a Namburie family seldom marry. They live with their eldest brothers, and assist the wives of the Rajas and other Nairs of distinction to keep up their families. Many Namburies have lost caste by committing murder, or by having eaten forbidden things; and in such cases their children generally become Mahomedans.

In the division of Shirnada, the low hills occupy a very large proportion of the surface; the soil in most of them consists of a kind of indurated clay, which on exposure to the air becomes as hard as a brick. The continuance of the rain, however, in this neighbourhood, is sufficient to ensure plenty of water for any crop that does not require more than four months to come to maturity.

ADJYGHUR *(the impregnable fortress).*—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated at nearly equal distances from Callinjer and Pannah, lat. 24° 50′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E. The fortress consists of a wall of loose stones, raised round the edge of a very high

and steep hill. The table land within the fort is a mile in length, by 700 or 800 yards average breadth, and is inaccessible, except by the paths made to the different gates; which are defended by walls and gates, one behind the other, and all of difficult ascent. Within the fort are three reservoirs of water cut in the solid rock, and the ruins of three Hindoo temples.

In 1809 it was besieged by a British detachment, and after a stout resistance, in which considerable loss was experienced by the assailants, was evacuated by the garrison. When the family of Lutchman Dowab, the refractory zemindar of Adjyghur, was ordered to be removed, an old man, his father-in-law, was sent into the women's apartments to prepare the females for their removal; he not returning after some time had elapsed, the house was entered by the roof, when it was found he had cut the throats of all the women and children, eight in number, and afterwards his own. The deed must have been perpetrated entirely with the consent and assistance of the females, as the persons stationed at the door never heard the slightest cries while the catastrophe was performing.—(11 *Reg. &c.*)

ADONI *(Adavani)*.—A district in the Balaghaut ceded territories, bounded on the north by the Toombudra, and intersected by the Hoggry or Vadavati river. The chief towns are Adoni, Chagee, and Gooroor. In 1800, this district, along with the tract of country situated to the south of the Toombudra and Krishna rivers, was ceded to the British government by the Nizam, and on subsequent arrangements taking place was attached to the Bellary collectorship.

ADONI.—The capital of the above division, situated in lat. 15° 35′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E., thirty-eight miles N. by E. from Bellary. This town was taken in 1568 by Ali Adil Shah of Bejapoor, at which period it stood on the top of a high hill, and contained within its walls many tanks and fountains of pure water, with numerous princely structures. The Rajas of Bijanagur, to whom it previously belonged, considered it impregnable, and an asylum for their families in desperate emergencies: but they lost it, with their empire, after the great battle fought with the Deccany Mahommedans in 1564. For a short interval during the eighteenth century it was the capital of a small independent Patan principality, and subsequently became the jaghire and residence of Bazalet Jung, brother to the late Nizam Ali. In 1787 it was besieged, taken, and destroyed by Tippoo, and in 1800, along with the district, was ceded to Britain by the Nizam. It is now a town of very little importance, and contains but a scanty population.

Travelling distance from Seringapatam 243 miles; from Madras 310; from Hyderabad 175; and from Calcutta 1,030 miles.—(*Ferishta, 12th Register, 5th Report, Rennel, &c.*)

ADRIAMPATAM.—A small town on the sea-coast of Tanjore, twenty-seven miles S. by E. from the city of Tanjore. Lat. 10° 19′ N., lon. 79° 26′ E.

AENG.—A British post in the province of Arracan, situated on the route from Shembewgewn, on the Irawady, to Amherst harbour in Arracan; lat. 19° 55′ N., lon. 93° 45′ E., sixty-six miles S.E. from Arracan town. The Aeng road was completed by the late Burmese sovereign Minderajee Praw, and does much credit to his energy, and to the skill of his engineers. It was begun in 1816, and finished gradually. This communication, however, is closed by the monsoon between May and January. In April 1826, when passed through by a battalion of sepoys returned from Ava, Aeng and its vicinity contained few inhabitants, but had previously been the emporium of the inland traffic between the two countries. The tide flows past it, but in April there is not sufficient

water for boats to within six miles of the wharf. A British force from hence might reach the Irawady in ten days, and the capital of Ava in a month, but the road is not practicable for heavy artillery.—(*Trant, &c.*)

AFGHANISTAN.

(Afghani-st'han.)—This extensive country is bounded on the north by the Hindoo Cosh mountains, and the Paropamisan range; the Indus is its boundary, as far south as lat. 32° 20′ N. The plain on the right bank of the Indus is inhabited by Balooches; but the chain of the Soliman mountains, with its subordinate ranges, and the country immediately at their base, belong to the Afghans. The hills which bound Sewistan on the north form the southern limit of the Afghan territory. Immediately to the north of these hills the Afghan country does not extend so far west as to reach the table-land of Kelat, but afterwards stretches past it on the north, and reaches to the desert which is its north-western boundary.

These countries are extremely variable in their level, soil, climate, and productions. The whole of Afghanistan west of the Soliman ridge is a table-land, lying higher than most of the neighbouring provinces. The Hindoo Cosh chain, which forms the northern boundary of Afghanistan, looks down on Bulk; on the east it is in proportion elevated above the still lower plain of the Indus. On the south it overlooks Sewistan; the deep valley of Bolaun, on the S.W., runs between it and Baloochistan. On the west it slopes gradually to the desert, and on the north-west, the appearance of elevation is lost as it approaches the Paropamisan mountains. The Afghans have no general name for the country they inhabit, but that of Afghanistan, which was probably first applied by the Persians, is frequently used in books, and is not unknown to the natives of the country thus designated. The section of the country to the west of the parallel of Makloor, lon. 68° 30′ E., is comprehended in the extensive province of Khorasan.

For so great a surface of country, Afghanistan possesses but few large rivers; indeed, except the Indus, there is no river in this region that is not fordable throughout its course during the greater part of the year, the others more resembling large torrents, which occasionally rush down with a heavy flood, and afterwards leave their hollow bed empty. Their volume is also much reduced by the number of small channels cut for the purposes of irrigation, by which a large stream is sometimes entirely drawn off before it reaches any other river; and it may be remarked of the rivers of this region, that their bulk at their mouths is never equal to the expectations they raise when seen emerging from the mountains. The Indus alone is always navigable, although so little use is made of its channel. The Cabul river, the Cashgar, the Koorum and the Gomul, flow towards the east; those running to the west are the Helmund or Etymandu, the Urghunaub, the Khooshrood, the Furrahrood, and the Lora. There is only one small lake, situated to the S.W. of Ghizni.

In Afghanistan the south-west monsoon is felt with much less violence than in India, being exhausted at no great distance from the sea, and not at all perceptible at Candahar. A remarkable exception, however, to this rule is observed in the north-eastern quarter of Afghanistan, which although much more remote from the sea than Candahar, is subject to the monsoon, which it receives from the east. The countries under the Hindoo Cosh, such as Puckely, Beneer, and Sewad, have all a share of the monsoon rains, which diminish as they go west, and at Sewad are reduced to a month of clouds, with occasional showers, about the conclusion of July and beginning of August. During this short period the monsoon appears in some clouds and showers at Peshawer and in the Bungish and Khuttak countries. It is still

less felt in the valley of the Cabul river, where it does not extend beyond Lugman; but in Bajour and Punjcora, under the southern projection of the Hindoo Cosh, in part of the Caffristan, situated on the top of that promontory, and in Teera, near the Tuhkte Soliman, the south-west monsoon is heavy, and forms the principal rains of the year.

The climate of Afghanistan varies extremely in different parts of the country, partly owing to the difference of latitude, but much more to the greater or less elevation of the various provinces. The direction of the winds also is of material influence; some blow over ridges of snowy mountains, others are heated in summer and rendered cold in winter by their passage over deserts; some districts are refreshed in summer by breezes from moister countries, while others are so enclosed by hills as to be inaccessible to any wind. The extremes of heat and cold are also experienced, for while in the sultry valley of Peshawer the thermometer rises to 113° Fahrenheit, the lofty peaks of the Hindoo Cosh within sight remain covered with never-melting snow. The prevailing wind through Afghanistan is from the west; and it is remarked by the natives, that westerly winds are cold, while easterly are hot. The general character of the climate is decidedly dry, being little subject to rain, clouds, or fogs. The annual heat, on an average, is greater than that of England, but less than that of India; while the difference of temperature between winter and summer, and even between day and night, is greater than in either of these countries. If an inference may be drawn from the size, strength, and activity of the inhabitants, the territory may be pronounced favourable to the human constitution, and many districts are remarkable for their salubrity.

To the traveller the Afghan country presents wild unfrequented deserts, and mountains covered with perennial snow. Even among the cultivated districts he will discover a wild assemblage of hills and wastes without enclosures, unembellished by trees, and destitute of navigable canals, public roads, and all the elaborate productions of human civilization, while the towns will be found few and remote from each other. On the other hand, he would be struck with the population and fertility of certain plains and vallies, where he would discover the productions of Europe mingled with those of the Torrid Zone, and the land improved with the utmost industry. In other parts the inhabitants would be found following their flocks, dwelling in tents, or stationary in villages, composed of mud-built walls with terraced roofs.

In Afghanistan there are five classes of cultivators, *viz.* first, proprietors who cultivate their own lands; second, tenants who hire it for a money rent, or for a fixed proportion of the produce; third, buzgurs, who are the same as the métayers in France; fourth, hired labourers; fifth, vassals, who till their lord's lands without wages. The land, on the whole, is more equally divided than in most countries, Afghanistan containing a great number of landed proprietors. The common lease is one and two years, the best five; the value of land is estimated at about twelve years' purchase. In most parts of this territory there are two harvests in the year, one of which is sown the end of autumn and reaped in summer; the other is sown the end of spring and reaped in autumn. Wheat is the food of the people in the greatest proportion of the country, the barley raised being commonly given to horses; rice is also generally found, but is most abundant in Sewad, best at Peshawer, and is almost the only food of the inhabitants of Cashmere. Garden vegetables of all sorts are plentiful and excellent, but most of the sugar is brought from Hindostan; cotton, with a few exceptions, is confined to the hot districts; little, however, is manufactured, a great proportion of the cotton cloth used being imported

from India. The palma christi, or castor-oil plant, is common, and supplies a great part of the oil used; madder abounds in the cold climates of the west, where also the assafœtida plant is found wild. Vast quantities of this last-mentioned drug are exported to India, where it forms a favourite ingredient in the cookery of both Hindoos and Mahomedans. Tobacco is produced in most parts of Afghanistan.

The grain is converted into flour by windmills, watermills, or handmills, the first being the most common in the west, where a steady wind can be relied on for at least four months of the year. There are many ruins of old windmills as far east as Cabul and Ghizni, the sails of which appear to have been enclosed within the building, the wind having access by an opening; the wheel of the watermill is horizontal. Horses are employed to draw the plough in Turkistan and the Eimauk country, but no where else in Afghanistan; nor are they employed for this purpose either in Hindostan or Persia, that task in all the three being usually assigned to oxen and buffaloes, although in particular parts of the first camels and asses are also used. A considerable number of horses are reared in the Afghan dominions; those from Herat are reckoned particularly good, some of them having the figure of an Arab, with superior size. A good breed of the Indian sort, named tazi, is found in Bunnoo and Damaun, and excellent horses of the same description are bred between the Hydaspes and Indus; but excepting those from the province of Bulk, which are excellent, the horses from the Afghan territories have not a very good character.

Camels are the animals most employed for carriage; the dromedary is found in all the plain country, especially in the dry and sandy parts, and is the tall, long-legged animal common to India. The Bactrian camel is more rare, and is a third lower than the other, but very stout; he is covered with black shaggy hair, and has two distinct humps, instead of one bunch like the dromedary. The best oxen are imported from the Rajpoot country. The grand stock of the pastoral tribes is sheep, of the species having tails a foot broad, almost entirely composed of fat. Various breeds of goats, some with long twisted horns, are common among the mountains. The dogs of Afghanistan are excellent, particularly the greyhounds and pointers; the cats are of the long-haired sort, known in Europe by the name of Persian cats. There are three sorts of eagles, and many kinds of hawks trained to the chase; the chirk species are trained to strike the antelope, and fasten on its head until the greyhounds come up. Among the other birds, herons, cranes, storks, wild ducks, geese, partridges, pigeons, crows, and sparrows, are common; cuckoos rare, and magpies numerous, while peacocks are unknown. The snakes and scorpions of this country are large; there are no alligators; fish are scarce, and turtles and tortoises plenty. Flights of locusts are not of frequent occurrence; bees are common; but musquitoes, except in the hot tracts, give but little annoyance. Among the wild animals, lions are said to be found in the hilly country about the city of Cabul, but this appears improbable; tigers are principally seen in the low country along the Indus; wolves, hyænas, foxes, and hares are common every where. Bears are found among the woody mountains, but they seldom quit their recesses except when allured by a field of sugar cane; there are two kinds, one the common black bear of India, and the other of a dirty white or yellow colour. Wild boars are rare; but a great variety of deer, including the elk, abound among the mountains. Wild sheep and wild goats are common, besides which there are porcupines, hedgehogs, mangooses, ferrets, wild dogs, and monkeys. Elephants are brought from Hindostan, neither that animal nor the rhinoceros being found in a wild state.

Many European trees are indige-

nous to Afghanistan, where most of the finest European fruits grow wild. The commonest trees are the large coned fir, with seeds resembling pistaccio nuts; oaks, cedars, a gigantic species of cypress, the walnut, pistaccio and the olive, mulberry, tamarisk. English flowers, such as jessamines, poppies, narcissuses, tuberoses, hyacinths, &c. are raised in the gardens. The country not having been explored, little is known respecting its mineral riches. Gold is said to be found in some of the streams that flow from the Hindoo Cosh mountains; silver in Caffristan, rubies in Badukshan, and cliffs containing lapis lazuli are supposed to overhang the Cashgur river; lead, iron, and antimony are procured in different tracts; sulphur, rock salt, from the salt range of mountains; saltpetre every where; alum is extracted from the clay at Calabaugh, and orpiment is procured from Bulk and the Hazareh countries.

Afghanistan being an inland country, destitute of navigable rivers and roads fit for wheel carriages, commerce is carried with camels in the level country, and with horses and ponies among the mountains. Caravans go to Chinese Turkistan from Cashmere and Peshawer; from Candahar and Herat to Persia; but the trade to Hindostan is more divided. That of the Punjab and the north comes to Peshawer, while that which crosses the desert of Rajpootana and the countries still further south comes to Shekarpoor, Bahawulpoor, and Mooltan. The trade by sea arrives at Corachie, and is thence transported to Shekarpoor and Candahar. The chief commercial intercourse is with India, Persia, and Turkistan (both independent and Chinese), but the first is by far the most considerable. The exports to India consist principally of horses, furs, shawls, madder, assafœtida, tobacco, almonds, pistaccio nuts, walnuts, hazel-nuts, and fruits both fresh and dried. The imports are coarse cotton cloths, muslins, silken cloths and brocades, indigo in large quantities, ivory, chalk, bamboos, wax, tin, sandal-wood, and nearly all the sugar used in the country. Spices are largely imported from Bombay and the Malabar coast to Corachie; cowries also come by this route, through which horses are exported. The horse trade is one of considerable importance. A great number of horses are annually sold in the north of India, under the name of Cabul horses, and in the west under that of Candahar horses; but almost the whole of these come from Turkistan. No horses are bred at Cabul, except by men of property for their own use, nor are the horses about Candahar exported. Some fine horses from the neighbourhood of Herat are carried to other countries, but few or none to India. A considerable number of horses are exported from Baloochistan, as are also some of the fine breed found on both sides of the Indus, in the county north of the salt range. The great breeding country in the Afghan dominions is Balk, from which quarter, and from the Turkoman country, lower down the Oxus river, a great proportion of the horses exported are brought. There are two sorts of horses mostly dealt in, one rather small but very stout; the other much larger, and more valued on that account, although not near so serviceable, except for war, when, owing to the Asiatic mode of fighting, size is of importance. The first are called Toorkies or Uzbekies, the second Turkomanies. The great marts are Balk and Bokhara, where Toorkies sell for from £5 to £20, and Turkomanies from £20 to £100 each. Of late years the exportation to India has been rapidly decreasing, owing to the extension of the British possessions, where small bodies of disciplined infantry have been substituted for large bodies of horse; and in proportion as the circle of their depredations has been contracted, the native armies have been also modified and diminished by a greater admixture of infantry.

The origin of the term Afghan has

never been satisfactorily traced, but it is probably of modern date, being known to the Afghan nation only through the medium of the Persian. The name by which they designate themselves is Pooshtoon, in the plural Pooshtaneh, sometimes pronounced Pooktauneh, whence possibly the word Patan, by which the Afghans are known in India, may be derived. By the Arabians they are called Solimanee. They have no general name for their country, but sometimes apply the Persian one of Afghanist'han. The name most usually applied to the whole country is Khorassan, which is obviously incorrect. The Afghans describe themselves as having originally sprung in four divisions, from the four sons of Kyse Abouresheed, named Serrabun, Ghoorghoosht, Betnee, and Kurleh, from whom originate the innumerable tribes, branches, and subdivisions which at present exist. The term Ooloos is applied either to a whole tribe or to an independent branch, the import of the word meaning a sort of clannish commonwealth. Khail means a band or assemblage, and Zei means sons. Throughout all the tribes, the clannish attachment of the Afghans, unlike that of the Scottish highlanders, is rather to the community than to the chief, who has but little power, and it is but rarely that the personal interests of its khan or chief will influence a tribe to any action inconsistent with its own interest or honour.

The general law of the empire is that of Mahomed, but their peculiar code is the Pooshtoon-Wallee, or peculiar usages of the Afghans, which authorizes the law of retaliation. Slaves are common in Afghanistan, mostly home-born, the rest imported. Abyssinians and negroes are sometimes brought from Arabia; the Baloochies sell Persians and other prisoners, and many Caffries are purchased or made prisoners. The Caffrey prisoners are generally females, and much sought after on account of their beauty. The Afghan men are of robust make, generally lean, but strong and muscular, with high noses and cheek bones and long faces. Their hair and beards are generally black, sometimes brown, but rarely red. The western Afghans are stouter than those of the east, and some are of surprising strength and stature, but in the aggregate not so tall as the British nations. Their manners are frank and open, but entirely free from the affectation of military pride and ferocity, so disgusting among the Patans of India. By the Persians the Afghans are accused of barbarism and stupidity, because they want the subtlety and mendacity of the former, and are remarkable among eastern nations for their veracity. Their ruling passion is the love of gain, and hoarding a favourite system with all classes, the influence of money being nearly unbounded. They are proud of their descent, and great supporters of genealogies. To their immediate dependents they are kind, but the reverse to those who are under them, without any personal connexion, on which account the more remote provinces which they have subdued, such as Cashmere, suffer greatly from their rapacity. Their vices are those of revenge, envy, avarice, rapacity, and obstinacy; but on the other hand they are fond of independence, faithful to each other, kind to their immediate dependents, hospitable, brave, hardy, frugal, laborious, prudent, and are on the whole, at least in their native country, much less debauched, voluptuous, and dishonest, than their neighbours the Hindostanees and Persians.

The above favourable character, however, must in a great degree be restricted to the inhabitants of the country, for the greater part of the sedentary town population are not Afghans. No genuine Afghan ever keeps a shop, or exercises any handicraft trade, these vocations being mostly occupied by Tajiks (whose language is Persian) and Hindikies, a people of Indian origin. The only Afghans who reside in great towns are great men and their followers,

soldiers, moollahs, a few who follow commerce, and some of the very poorest who work as labourers. The prohibition in the Koran against true believers taking interest for money, devolves most of the banking business on the Hindoos, for which, from their cautious and penurious habits, they are admirably suited. The Tajiks of Afghanistan are every where remarkable for their use of fixed habitations, and their disposition to agriculture, and other stationary occupations. They compose the principal part of the population round Cabul, Candahar, Ghizni, Herat, and Balk, but there are few in the wild parts of the country. The whole number in the Cabul dominions has been estimated at about 1,500,000 persons. The Hindikies are more numerous than the Tajiks, and all of Indian descent; their language is a kind of Hindostany, resembling the Punjaubdialect. Brahminical Hindoos are found all over Cabul, especially in the towns, where they carry on the trade of brokers, merchants, bankers, goldsmiths, and grain sellers. They are almost all of the Khetri (military) tribe, yet none follow the martial profession, and they are by no means strict in their adherence to the Brahminical doctrines of purity and impurity.

The food of the common people is leavened bread, rice, flesh, vegetables, sometimes cheese, and afterwards dried curds. Provisions are very cheap, and fruit so abundant, that in the city of Cabul grapes are dear when they sell for more than one farthing per pound. Nuts of all sorts are in profusion; vegetables are low-priced, as are also coriander seeds, turmeric, and ginger. In the Cohistan or hilly country, the chief subsistence of the people is derived from their numerous plantations of mulberry trees, the fruit of which is dried in the sun, then ground to flour, and afterwards made into bread. It has been calculated that the produce of an acre of mulberries will support a greater number of persons than one under regular tillage.

The Afghan nation being composed of the aggregate of many different tribes, cannot be properly described without particularly referring to each distinct body; but these divisions are so minute and extended that it is impossible even to enumerate them, and in point of strength and population, each tribe fluctuates almost annually. In 1809, those of the most importance were the

Durranies (formerly the Abdallies),
Ghiljies,
Yusephzeis,
Deggauns,
Kizzlebashes (of Persian origin),
Turkolanies, } Durranies,
Khyberies, }
Bungish, }
Otman khail, }
Khuttuks, }
Delazauks, }
Momunds,
Vizieries,
Wurducks,
Caukers, and
Naussers.

The Hazarehs and Eimauks, who now inhabit what is supposed to have been the original Afghan country, differ entirely from that nation in appearance, language and manners, but bear a strong resemblance to the Toorky tribes in their neighbourhood. The king is the natural head of the Durranies, the strongest, bravest, and most civilized tribe; but he is obliged to pay great attention to the wishes of the different clans that compose it. The tribes that inhabit the north-eastern quarter, enclosed between the Hindoo Cosh mountains and the Indus, the salt range and the range of Soliman, are comprehended under the general name of Ber Durranies, first given them by Ahmed Shah. They are mostly agricultural, but subdivided into numerous little societies. The Durranies had formerly the name of Abdallies, until it was changed to Durranies by Ahmed Shah, in consequence of the dream of a famous saint at Chamkunee, and upon this event he assumed the title of Shah Dooree Dooraun. Of all the clans into which this tribe is par-

titioned, the Populzei is the most eminent, and of this clan the Suddozei fills the throne, and is held peculiarly sacred.

The upper corner of Afghanistan, north of the Cabul river, and west of the Indus, is occupied by the Yusephzei tribe, who also inhabit the country among the hills named Beneer, Sewad, and Punjcora; some of this tribe extend to the Indus.—They have possessed the countries they now inhabit 300 years, but came originally from the west about Gairah and Nooshky. The territory was then possessed by the Delazauks, who were gradually expelled or exterminated by the Yusephzeis. At present the latter are a very numerous tribe, separated into many little communities, chiefly under an apparently democratic constitution, and notwithstanding their turbulence and internal discord, their country is well cultivated, and their villages and water-courses in excellent condition. A renowned saint of their own tribe is said to have left them a blessing and a curse, that "they should always be free but never united." In consequence of their interminable feuds, there is scarcely a man of any note, who is not constantly on the watch for his life. In every village men are seen clad in armour, and others are surrounded by hired soldiers. Each injury produces fresh retaliations, hence ambuscades, sudden attacks in the streets, murder in their houses, with the consequent distrust, alarm, and confusion. It is not possible to enumerate all the little republics of the Yusephzeis independent of each other. The whole population has been estimated at 700,000 persons, but more than half of these are the mere peasantry (here named Fakeers) who labour for the Yusephzeis. These Fakeers have the liberty of removing from the lands of one master to those of another, and even to a distinct community, which privilege is their main protection against oppression.

The crown of Cabul is hereditary in that branch of the Suddozei family which is descended from Ahmed Shah Abdalli, but there is no fixed rule for its descending to the eldest son. The whole of the royal family, except those especially favoured by the reigning sovereign, are imprisoned in the upper citadel of Cabul city, where they are well treated but strictly confined. The king's title is Shahy Dooree Dooraun. He has the exclusive privilege of coining, and is prayed for in the khootbeh, a part of the religious service of the Mahomedans. He has the right of making peace and declaring war, but cannot cede any portion of the territory occupied by the Afghan tribes, who have generally shewn no desire for western conquests; and it was a death-bed injunction of Ahmed Shah to avoid attacking the Uzbeks, whom he designated "a hive without honey." Indeed the majority of the Afghan tribes meddle little with external politics, and possess but scanty information regarding the neighbouring states, having no news-writers as in Hindostan, and but few ambassadors. The general administration is conducted by the King with the assistance of the Great Vizier, who ought to be selected from the clan of Baumzei. Next to the Vizier are the head secretary (the Moonshee Bashi), the superintendent of the intelligence department (Harcarah Bashi), and the commandant of punishments or public executioner (Nasukher Bashi). The station of Arz Beggee was hereditary in the family of Akram Khan. The duty of this functionary is to repeat in an audible voice to the king, any thing that is said by his subjects when admitted to the presence, and his office it may be supposed is of considerable importance.

The whole kingdom in 1809 was subdivided into twenty-seven provinces, eighteen of which had each a separate governor or hakim, who collected the revenue and commanded the militia, and a surdar or general who commanded the regulars, but sometimes both of these offices were united. The eighteen provinces thus administered were Herat, Furrah,

Candahar, Ghizni, Cabul, Bamian, Ghoorebund, Jellalabad, Lughman, Peshawer, Dera Ismael Khan, Dera Ghazi Khan, Shekarpoor, Sewee, Sinde, Cashmere, Chuch Hazareh, Leia and Mooltan, some of which at present are totally separated from the Afghan dominions, and others under but little control. In settled times the revenue of Cabul was formerly reckoned at near three millions per annum, but the real revenue seldom exceeded two millions, and of this a large proportion was assigned away in military jaghire.

In the cities justice is administered by the cauzies, the mufti, the ameeni mekemeh, and the darogah of the adawlut. In the country the landholders were answerable for the police, which in most parts is very bad. The established army (before the existing anarchy) consisted of Durranies, Gholaumí Shahs, besides which there was a sort of militia named Eeljauree. The conduct of the Durranies (the ruling tribe) in their wars, conveys a very mean idea of their military character. Their armies were always very small, seldom exceeding ten thousand men of a side, and these ill paid and disobedient. The victory was usually decided by some person of consequence going over to the enemy, on which the greater part of the army dispersed, or followed his example. Even when the battle was decided by the sword there was little bloodshed, and that chiefly among the great khans who were interested in the result, the common soldiers shewing much indifference as to the issue.

The language of the Afghans is named the Pushtoo; but its origin is unknown, as a large portion of the words cannot be traced to any of the ancient languages, although Sir William Jones considered it to be a dialect of the scriptural Chaldaic. For writing they use the Persian alphabet, and generally the Nush character; but as they have some sounds not expressible by any Persian letter, they denote these by adding a distinctive mark or point to the Persian letter, which approaches nearest in sound. In a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Pushtoo, the missionaries could scarcely trace four words to the Sanscrit, although half of them were quite familiar as being current in the Hindostany. It is consequently evident that the languages derived from the Sanscrit end in the west at Afghanistan, which idea is confirmed by the Baloochy dialect to the south of that region. The Pushtoo, though rough, is a manly language, and not unpleasing to an ear accustomed to the oriental tongues. None of the famous authors in this dialect are more than one century and a half old, and there are probably no books in the language more than twice that antiquity, their literature being mostly of Persian origin. Their pure authors are chiefly writers on theology and law; but they have also several histories of particular periods of their own transactions. The books written in Pushtoo, however, are not to be relied on as giving any standard of the national learning, Persian being still the language in which all scientific works are composed.

The manners of the Afghan tribes differ according as their habits are stationary or migratory. The dwellers in tents are chiefly found in the west, much the larger portion of the eastern Afghans living in houses, and circumstances render it probable that all over the empire the erratic tribes are diminishing, no voluntary migration of a tribe from one distant station to another having taken place for above a century. The commonest houses are built of brick, one story high, and roofed, either with terraces or low cupolas, supported by beams. There are neither wheeled carriages nor palanquins in the country, both sexes travelling on horses and camels. One of the most distinguished characteristics of the Afghans is their hospitality, for which they are justly famous, it being considered a point of national honour. The greatest affront an Afghan can receive is to have his guest carried off. They are

remarkable for their rapacity and predatory habits, and will next day, if they meet him at a distance, plunder the individual they have before hospitably entertained. They acquire their wives by purchase, and among them, as among the ancient Jews, it is thought incumbent on the brother of the deceased to marry his widow.

With respect to religion, the Afghans are all of the Sooni sect of Mahomedans, which acknowleges the three first Caliphs as the lawful successors of Mahomed, and opposed to the Shiahs, who reject the three first Caliphs as usurpers of the right of Ali, the nephew of the prophet, and fourth of his successors. A bitter enmity between these two sects is the consequence; and the unlearned portion of the Afghans certainly consider a Shiah as more of an infidel than a Hindoo, yet all the numerous Persians in the country are Shiahs, and many of them hold high offices in the state and household. Another remarkable sect in Afghanistan is that of the Sophies, which ought perhaps to be considered rather as a sect of mystified philosophers, than mere sectarians in religion. This class gains ground among the higher orders, and such of the Moullahs as are dabblers in general literature, to whose taste its mysteries and obscure sublimity is admirably suited. Another sect, named the Zukkies from Moullah Zukki, its first patron, hold doctrines hostile to all revelation and the belief of a future state, and are said practically to illustrate their doctrines by the depravity of their lives. The Roushunea sect was very prevalent in the sixteenth century, but is now nearly extinct. It was founded in the reign of the emperor Acber, by Bajazet Ansari, named by his enemies, the apostle of darkness, in derision to the title of Peeree Roushun, the apostle of light, which he had assumed.

Like many other eastern nations, the Afghans hold their burial-grounds in high veneration, naming them the cities of the dead. These they people with the ghosts of the departed, each sitting at the head of his own grave, although invisible to mortal eyes. They also pry into futurity by astrological and geomantic calculations, and by all kinds of divination and sortilege. The most approved modes, however, of discovering the arrangements of providence, are either by examining the blade-bone of a sheep, held up to the light, or by opening at random the Koran or the Poems of Hafiz.

The Afghans assert that they are descended from Afghan, the son of Irmia or Birkia, the son of Saul, king of Israel. The early Mahomedan chronicles mention Rajas of Cabul; but this proves no fact, as the same writers call the Hindoos Guebres, and apply the term rajah without sufficient discrimination. The first substantial tradition of the Afghans begins in A.D. 997, when Sebuctaghi, a Tartar officer, conquered Afghanistan, and made Ghizni its capital. His son, Mahmood, greatly extended the limits of the empire, and the dynasty lasted until 1159, from which period, until the invasion of Tamerlane, the Afghan history is involved in obscurity. In 1506, the emperor Baber seized on Cabul and Ghizni, prior to his invasion of Hindoostan. In 1720, the Afghans conquered Persia, and took Ispahan; but in 1737, their own country was completely subjugated by Nadir Shah. In 1747, Ahmed Shah ab dalli, the founder of the Durrany dynasty, was crowned at Candahar; in 1773 he was succeeded by his son Timour Shah, who died in 1793. Zemaun Shah reigned until 1800, when he was dethroned by his brother Mahmood, who, in 1803, was expelled by his brother Shuja, who was in his turn expelled by Mahmood in 1809, and sought refuge at Luddeaneh, where he remained in 1817, with a pension of 50,000 rupees per annum; but in 1818, he became restless, and quitted his asylum in hopes of regaining the uneasy crown. Meantime Runjeet Singh, the Seik chief of Lahore, availing himself of the existing con-

fusion, in 1819-20, conquered Peshawer, the modern Afghan capital, and the romantic valley of Cashmere. In 1821, Shah Shuja returned from the Karpoor to Luddeaneh, through Sinde, Jesselmere, and Joudpoor, after failing in attempt to recover his throne by the aid of the Ameers of Sinde. Great lenity was shewn him, and his pension restored, although he had offered to mortgage it to the Rajah of Noorpoor, to raise funds for his adventurous expedition. At the same time a pension was settled on his blind brother, Zemaun Shah, at one period the sovereign of Afghanisthan, and the terror of north-western India. In 1826, the rival kings, Mahmood and Shuja, were equally fugitives; the first with his son Camran at Herat; the last within the British territories. The Cabul country was then partitioned among the sons of Futteh Khan, always at variance, and Yar Mahomed Khan was actual ruler of Peshawer, probably under the protection of Runjeet Singh, the tide of conquest having rolled back for the first time from east to west.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

AFZULGHUR.—A town and stout ghurry in the province of Oude, situated in lat. 29° 25′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

AGHA DEEP *(Agha-dwipa)*.—A small town in the province of Bengal, where there is a celebrated image of Krishna, much venerated by the Hindoos.

PROVINCE OF AGRA.

This large division of Hindostan proper is situated principally between the 25th and 28th degrees of N. lat. On the north it is bounded by the province of Delhi, on the south by that of Malwa; on the east are the provinces of Oude and Allahabad, and on the west that of Ajmeer. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles by 180, the average breadth. The principal modern geographical and political subdivisons are the following:

1. Agra district.
2. The Doab.
3. The district of Etaweh.
4. The Furruckabad district.
5. Calpee, Gohud, and Gualior.
6. The Bhurtpoor territories.
7. Alvar and Macherry.
8. The Alighur district.

The surface of this province, to the north-east of the jumna, is in general flat and open, and rather bare of trees; but to the south of the Chumbul, and also towards the western frontier, it becomes more hilly and jungly. The climate, for the greater part of the year, is temperate, and during the winter cool during the nights; but while the hot winds prevail, as in other regions subject to their influence, the heat is intense, and the climate unhealthy, especially in the jungly quarter; but, fortunately, their continuance is not of very long duration. The chief rivers of the province are the Ganges, the Jumna, and the Chumbul, besides many smaller streams, such as the Sinde and Kohary; but, upon the whole, the country is but indifferently supplied with water, and depends much on the periodical rains. To the north of the Chumbul, and on the western frontier, during the dry season, except in the immediate vicinity of the large rivers, which flow with a perpetual current, water for agricultural purposes is procured from wells. A great proportion of the cultivation is consequently restricted to such crops as do not, like rice, require a redundant supply of moisture.

Various streams have their sources in the north-western hills, and during the rains flow with a considerable volume; but even then they do not reach the Jumna, Chumbul, or any large depôt of water, being arrested during their progress; either absorbed by the thirsty soil, or abstracted by the husbandman for the purposes of agriculture. The soil of this province is particularly well adapted for the cultivation of indigo

cotton, and sugar, which might be raised in any quantity, and the production of which, in the British territories, is annually fast increasing. In those subject to the native chiefs, agriculture still meets with impediments, but nevertheless, during the long tranquillity they have been compelled to enjoy, has made considerable advances. The Agra province contains no peculiar mineral productions, and the animals are such as are usually found in other quarters of Hindostan; but the horses are reckoned much superior to those reared further east, with the exception of those bred in the government studs at Tirhoot and Ghazipoor. While describing the local subdivisions into which the province is partitioned, further particulars of this nature will be noticed.

The principal article manufactured in the Agra province is coarse cotton cloth, which was once largely exported, but has latterly much declined. The Bengal and Bahar provinces receive annually an importation of raw cotton, from the country south of the Chumbul, by the route of Kalpee; but a considerable portion of it is the growth of Malwa, and the former Maharatta territories to the south-east of Agra. The Doab, or territory included between the Ganges and Jumna, which may be termed the garden of the province, exports indigo, sugar, and cotton. The country to the north-west of Agra, under the Rajas of Macherry, Bhurtpoor, and other native chiefs, although ill supplied with water, has latterly much improved both in industry and cultivation. Upon the whole, the province is but thinly populated, when compared with Bengal, Bahar, Tanjore, and the more flourishing of the British districts, and does not, probably, in all its dimensions, contain more than eight millions of inhabitants, of which much the larger portion reside within the jurisdiction of the British magistrates.

At present the chief native potentates within the limits of the province are the Rajahs of Macherry and Bhurtpoor; but, besides these, it contains petty independent chiefs, all under the protection of the British government, which preserves peace between them, and arbitrates their differences. All the country to the east of the Jumna is directly under British authority, and is managed by a regular civil establishment, for the collection of the revenue and administration of justice. The tracts to the south of the Chumbul, comprehending Gualior, Gohud, Narwar, &c., with the exception of the town and district of Kalpee, are either in the possession of, or tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia.

The chief towns in the Agra, besides its capital, are Alvar, the capital of the Macherry Rajah; Bhurtpoor, the capital of the Jauts; Deeg, another strong Jaut fortress; Mathura, Bindrabund, Kanoje, Etawah, Gualior, Gohud, Kalpee, Narwar, and Furruckabad. The natives are, in general, a handsome, robust race of men, and consist of a mixture of Hindoos and Mahomedans, few of the Seiks having come so far south. A considerable number of the cultivators to the west of the Jumna are Jauts, and the country of the Macherry Rajah contains many Mewatties, long noted for their thievish propensities. The Hindoo religion is still predominant, although the country has been (until recently) permanently subject to Mahomedan princes since the thirteenth century. Pagodas are numerous, and mosques rare, while the Rajpoot and Brahminical races prevail among the peasantry. The woods and jungles are full of peacocks, another symptom of Hindooism; and most of the names are followed by the affix of Singh, which ought to be peculiar to the Rajpoots of noble descent; but all the Jauts assume it without ceremony, as do also the Seiks, who, being apostates from the Brahminical faith, have still less claim to such a distinction. The language of common intercourse is the Hindostany; but the Persian (for which English might now be substituted) is used for

public and official documents, and is also spoken in conversation by the higher classes of Mahomedans. The Bruj dialect is spoken round the city of Agra, and extends to the Vindhya mountains. In the words of the Lord's prayer in this language, twenty-eight correspond with those occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, besides two or three Sanscrit words of frequent recurrence in the Bengalese. The ancient language of Kanoje, the capital of upper Hindostan, at the period of the first Mahomedan invasion, is thought by Mr. Colebrooke to form the basis of the modern Hindostany.

In the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity this province must have formed a very important division of Hindostan, as it contained Kanoje, Mathura, and Bindrabund, the seats of their most famous empires, and still among the most venerated places of pilgrimage. The city of Agra is supposed to have been the birthplace of the Avatar, or incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Parasu Rama, whose conquests extended to and included Ceylon. After the Mahomedan invasion it followed the fate of Delhi, and during the reign of Acber, as containing the temporary metropolis, was the leading province of the empire. Subsequent to the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, it was alternately possessed and ravaged by the Jauts, Maharattas, and different commanders deputed from Delhi to restore peace and the imperial authority, neither of which they were ever able to effect. One of the latter, Nadjiff Khan, governed the districts north of the Chumbul from 1777 until his death, independent of all control from the Delhi sovereign. (*Abul Fazel, Scott, Colebrooke, Missionaries, Wilford, &c.*)

Agra District. — The modern district of Agra joins the Delhi division a short distance north of Kosee, and extends along the banks of the Jumna to its junction with the Chumbul. On the west it is bounded by the pergunnahs of Deeg, the Bhurtpoor territories, and the pergunnahs of Dholpoor, Barree, and Rajakera. That portion situated between the Chumbul and the Jumna is a table land, elevated above the beds of both rivers about sixty feet, and composed of a light soil. In many parts, during the dry season, the tanks, streams, and rivulets are without water, which, for agricultural and domestic purposes, is procured from wells. Cultivation in this district, when compared with its condition in the Company's old provinces, has made but little progress. The waste lands are very extensive, and a portion of them might, without injustice, be set aside for the maintenance of watchmen, or of any other public measure. This backward state of the agriculture is in a great measure to be ascribed to its locality, and the peculiar political relations in which it is circumstanced; the contiguity of independent states, separated in many parts from the British territories by an imaginary boundary, and inhabited by tribes long noted for their habits of rapine, such as the Mewatties and Buddicks, who, after committing crimes within the limits of Agra, find a secure asylum for their persons and plunder in the adjacent native states, or among the defiles and ravines which intersect the southern portion of this division.

The jurisdiction of Chata contains 175 villages, and is bounded by that of Delhi, by the dominions of the Nabob Ahmed Buksh Khan, and by Bhurtpoor. The inhabitants of this tract have been, from time immemorial, most notorious robbers, and it is only within these fifteen years that their roads could be passed with any degree of safety. This predatory disposition, in addition to the facilities afforded by its frontier position, and much jungle between the villages, requires a more than ordinary share of vigilance and vigour on the part of the magistrate to retain the tract in tolerable subordination. Kosee is a place of consequence, wealth, and

commercial importance. Nundgaow and Bursana are places of considerable resort, owing to the opinion entertained by the Hindoos of their sanctity; but the inhabitants of the first and those of Muchhoe have long had an evil reputation, and the latter being situated on the banks of the Jumna, its natives have fallen under the suspicion of exercising their ingenuity and activity in transferring the property of their neighbours in the Alighur division to their own respective dwellings.

Sonk is a town of considerable size on the immediate frontier of the district. Hurbola, is situated on the high road to Mathura. Between Secundra, near Agra, and Gaowghaut the country is barren, with much jungle, affording no protection to travellers, but extremely well adapted for the concealment of thieves. All is immediately on the Bhurtpoor frontier, and much exposed. The neighbourhood of Jet, lying between Bindrabund and Choumaher, is famous for the bad character of its inhabitants, who too frequently avail themselves of the conveniences afforded by the neighbouring ravines and jungles. The Hindoo sanctuaries of Mathura and Bindrabund are two populous towns, where for security, and to promote an improved system of police, gates have been erected at the principal entrances, and at the heads of the streets and alleys. Prior to 1812, an attempt was made to induce the zemindars to retain a number of watchmen, in proportion to the magnitude of their different villages, but the burthen being found by experience greater than their resources could bear, the establishment was ultimately abandoned. In the section of the police division contiguous to the lands of Rajah Keeruth Singh, a strong police is required; yet in 1812 the only police officer entertained was a Belahur, whose duty it was to report to the head of the tannah the occurrences of his village; and even this functionary complained that his wages were not paid with due punctuality.

The prevailing crime in the Agra district is that of robbery on the highway; and the connivance of the zemindars with the robbers, although difficult of direct proof, is an article of universal belief. The presumption is greatly strengthened when the condition of the country prior to its coming under the British government is considered. At that period the zemindars openly sheltered thieves, and shared their plunder; and as the practice avowedly continues in the immediate neighbourhood, the probability amounts almost to a certainty. The land revenue yielded by this district in 1804 did not exceed 8,500,000 rupees, although by Sindia's ministers it had been estimated at thirteen lacks. It was then held by Colonel Hessing, the commandant of Agra, as Jaidad. In 1813, the Agra district was said to contain 1,222,667 cutcha or small begas of land in cultivation, assessed at 1,425,802 rupees, or one rupee two annas per bega of 1,600 square yards; 330,807 begas fit for agriculture, and 902,740 begas entirely waste.—(*R. Turner, Public MS. Documents, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

Agra *(or Acberabad)*.—The capital of the preceding province, commodiously situated on the south west side of the Jumna, which in the month of June is here half a mile broad, and never fordable at any time; lat. 27° 11′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E. The houses of modern Agra like those of Benares consist of several stories, and the streets with the exception of that leading from the fort to the Mathura gate, which is handsome for an Indian city, so narrow as scarcely to admit of a palanquin; but much the greater part of this once flourishing city is now a heap of ruins and almost uninhabited. Six miles to the north, at Secundra, is the mausoleum of the Emperor Acber. From the summit of the minaret in front of it, the spectator's eye may range over a great circuit of country, not less than thirty miles in a direct line. The whole of this space is flat, and filled with the ruins of

ancient grandeur; at a distance the Jumna is seen, and the glittering towers of Agra. The fort is large, and strongly built of a red kind of hard sandstone, brought from the quarries at Futtehpoor. It has a ditch of great depth, and double rampart, the inner one being of an enormous height, with bastions at regular distances.

This city was greatly enlarged and embellished by the Emperor Acber, who made it his capital, and it had also the honour of being the birthplace of Abul Fazel, his prime minister. In 1813, a pension of fifty rupees per month was granted by the British government to Mustapha Khan, a resident here, and the reputed lineal descendant of that meritorious vizier. During the prevalence of the Gallo-Maharatta power in Hindustan, the pension to this individual had been reduced to the miserable pittance of fifteen rupees per annum.

The most remarkable edifice in modern Agra is the Tauje Mahal, built of marble; greatly resembling that of Carrara, and erected by the Emperor Shah Jehan for the celebrated Noor Jehan Begum. This edifice, with its light minars, its great gateway, mosque, and Jumaut Khana, forms the most exquisite group of oriental architecture in existence, and although the more costly mosaics, of twelve different sorts of stone, within the mausoleum, have been partially despoiled of their riches, the general beauty of their structure remains to this day perfectly unimpared. The gardens which occupy the great area in front are adorned with rows of cypresses, and enlivened with fountains, which are still kept in order at the public expense, and usually play on Sunday evenings. Besides the Tauje Mahal and the apartments of the imperial palace, there is a small white marble mosque of singular purity of design, named the Mootee Musjeed, or pearl mosque, which with the Jumna Musjeed, the great chowk contiguous to the principal gate of the fort, and the tomb of Etimaud ud Dowlah, on the opposite bank of the Jumna, with its delicate marble lettice-work and fantastic party-coloured mosaics, are remarkable structures. There is also an old Roman Catholic college still subsisting in the neighbourhood, but in a decayed condition. In 1814, one lack of rupees had been expended by the British government in the repairs of the Tauje and the Emperor Acber's mausoleum at Secundra; but in India, owing to the nature of the climate, the luxuriant vegetation, and other causes, undertakings of this sort may be described as never ending, still beginning. The tomb of Kundehree Begum, another of Shah Jehan's wives, has not been so fortunate, for while that of her rival has been repaired and adorned at a vast expense, the other is polluted by the presence of a court of justice, which holds its sittings there.

The extensive ruins which surround Agra, added to the celebrity of its name, probably gave rise to the exaggerated idea entertained of its present magnitude and population; the portion of the town, however, which is inhabited is comprehended within a very small compass. It does not appear that any enumeration of the inhabitants has ever been made, but if the amount of the town duties on the import of grain for their consumption, compared with Furruckabad and Bareilly, may be taken as any criterion, the inference would be that Agra is the least populous of the whole. In 1813 these duties for Agra were 16,251; for Furruckabad 22,000 rupees; and for Bareilly 22,101 rupees. The present number of inhabitants is probably within sixty thousand, but this number may eventually be expected greatly to increase, from the facility Agra affords to the commerce of western Hindostan, which is already very great, as will appear from the duties paid into the treasury on account of duties received at the custom-house, *viz.* in 1812-13, 673,006 and in 1813-14, 922,157 rupees. In 1818 the increase of duties, in consequence of the tranquillization of Rajpootana, was such that the customs of Agra exceeded those of the preceding

year by 130,000 rupees, and they have since continued progressively to increase.

Agra with the rest of the province fell under the sway of Madhajee Sindia, and continued in the possession of the Maharattas until 1803, when it surrendered to the British army under Lord Lake. Among the ordnance captured here was one enormous piece, weighing about 96,000 pounds, which Lord Lake endeavoured to float down as a trophy to Calcutta, with the view of having it afterwards sent to England, but it broke through the frame of the raft, and sunk in the sands of the river, where it in all probability still remains. It is not known by whom it was fabricated. Agra, soon after its capture, was made the head quarters of a civil establishment for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, subordinate to the Bareilly court of circuit. A strong garrison is maintained in the fort and military cantonments, and the interior of the fortifications have been much improved, both as to arrangement and cleanliness. The higher parts of the fort are from fifty to sixty feet above the level of the river, and as it is filled with buildings of brick, stone, and marble, the heat is excessive.—(*Fullarton, R. Turner, Ker, Sir D. Ochterlony, &c.*)

Ahmedabad.—A British district in the province of Gujerat, established about the year 1817, when the Sabermatty river was fixed on as the boundary between the zillah of Ahmedabad and the eastern zillah north of the Myhie. Besides the geographical advantage of this division a marked difference was discovered in the habits, manners, customs, and even languages of the people on the east and western sides. In 1819, the average of the land jumma was Rupees 11,36,277; in 1820, Rupees 11,72,331.

Ahmedabad.—An ancient city in the province of Gujerat, of which it was the Mahomedan capital, situated on the banks of the Sabermatty, which washes its walls. Lat. 23° 1′ N., lon. 72° 42′ E. It is mentioned by Sidi Ali in the journal of his travels overland from Gujerat to Constantinople, A.D. 1554.

This was formerly a large city, celebrated for its mosques, minarets, edifices and manufactures; but prior to 1820, the heavy and vexatious municipal duties exacted by the Maharattas had reduced it from one of the most opulent and commercial to one of the most miserable cities in the East. During their government a tax was levied on every luxury and necessary, from the gold kincob to the wretched bundle of fire-wood or vegetables, either brought into or sent out of the city. On its acquisition from the Peshwa in 1818, the British government abolished all these extortions and simplified the collections, establishing an *ad valorem* duty of £2¼ per cent. on indigo, raw silk, &c., wholly exempting all articles of consumption, but augmenting the ordinary imposts on opium and tobacco. Besides these alterations all restriction on the transit of the agricultural products of the British territories through the district were entirely removed. This city suffered greatly from the earthquake in 1819, but even then its population was roughly estimated at 100,000 souls, and it probably has not since diminished. Travelling distance from Bombay 321 miles; from Poona 389; from Delhi 610; and from Calcutta by Oojein 1,234 miles.—(*Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Rennell, &c.*)

Ahmednuggur.—A city and fortress in the modern province of Aurungabad, to which it formerly gave its own appellation; lat. 19° 5′ N. lon. 74° 55′ E.

After the dissolution of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, Ahmed Nizam Shah established the independent state of Ahmednuggur, about the year A.D. 1489; in 1493 he laid the foundation of this town, and made it his capital. He died in 1508.

Bourahan Shah died in 1553.

Hossein Nizam Shah in 1565.

Morteza Nizam Shah became in-

sane' and was murdered by his son Meeraun Hossein, A.D. 1487.

Meeraun Hossein was assassinated after a reign of two months and three days.

Ismael Shah was taken prisoner and confined by his father, after a short reign.

Booraban Shah died in 1594.

Ibrahim Shah, having reigned four months, was killed in battle.

Bahadur Shah, an infant, was taken prisoner by the Moguls, and confined for life in the fortress of Gualior, and with him ended the Nizam Shahy dynasty of Ahmednuggur, about the year 1600. Nominal sovereigns of this family existed at Dowletabad until 1634, when it being also taken, the Nizam Shahy dominions became a province of the Mogul empire under the name of Aurungabad.

Ahmednuggur followed the fate of the Delhi empire until the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, when it was at a very early period seized on by the Maharattas, and continued to form a portion of the Peshwa's dominions until 1797, when Dowlet Row Sindia compelled the Peshwa to cede this important fortress with the surrounding district, by which cession he not only obtained the command of the city of Poona, but also the best entrance into the territories of the Peshwa and of our ally the Nizam. In 1803 it was taken by the army under General Wellesley, and ceded to the British by Dowlet Row Sindia, at the treaty of peace concluded on the 30th December 1803, with the view of being ultimately restored to the Peshwa.

The existing fort is entirely of stone, of an oval shape, and about a mile in circumference, with a great many round towers, and a glacis (a vain precaution in native forts), to cover such parts of the base of the wall as are exposed. The ditch is deep and broad, and the whole area within is vaulted for stores. The city stands about half a mile from the fort, and is also enclosed by a stone wall, and contains a handsome quadrangular chowk, and several tolerably well-built streets. The principal edifices in the vicinity are, an ancient palace of the Ahmednuggur sultans, a massy pile surrounded by a magnificent moat faced by solid masonry, supplied by a cascade of clear water from the adjacent hills; and the mausoleum of Salabut Jung, situated on the top of a mountain. At present Ahmednuggur is the head station of a civil establishment, and in 1820 was estimated to contain 20,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison.

Travelling distance from Poona, 83 miles; from Bombay by Poona, 181; from Hyderabad, 335; from Oojein, 365; from Nagpoor, 403; from Delhi, 830; and from Calcutta, 1,119 miles.—(*Scott, Fullarton, Ferishta, Malcolm, Fitzclarence, Elphinstone, &c.*)

AHMEDNUGGUR.—A British district in the province of Aurungabad, composed of conquests made from the Peshwa in the war of 1818. In 1821 the total extent of land in this collectorate was 5,999,000 begas, of which 3,748,000 were stated to be lost in rivers, rocks, hills, or included in enams (charity lands exempted from the revenue assessment), leaving 2,249,000 begas of arable land in the hands of government. The total number of villages under the collector's superintendence was 2,647; of which 156 were enam, 198 renewed sérinjammy, 179 belonged to Sindia and his dependants, eighty to Holkar and his dependents, forty-four to the Nizam, and twenty-five recently assigned in jaghire, leaving 1,963 in the hands of government. The jumma or assessment to the land revenue was 2,169,248 rupees; but the net clear revenue, after deducting charges, was only 1,280,762 rupees.

The Ahmednuggur district is one of the most elevated and temperate regions of the Deccan, but is scantily peopled, having fallen into decay after the war and famine of 1803-4, aggravated by the more recent destruction caused by the epidemic. The

neighbourhood of the capital, however, has greatly recovered, and in 1820 presented an extensive sheet of the richest cultivation.—(*Pottinger, Fullarton, &c.*)

Ahmedpoor.—A town in the province of Orissa, eleven miles south from Juggernaut. Long. 85° 54′ E., lat. 19° 58′ N.

Ahmood *(Amod)*.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, twenty miles N. by W. from Broach. Lat. 22° 3′, lon. 73° 6′ E. The soil here is generally a rich black earth, suitable for cotton, rice, wheat, and a great variety of Indian grains.—(*Forbes, &c.*)

Ahmudah *(or Moddha)*.—A large fortified village in Bundlecund, thirty-two miles south from Banda.

Aibecca.—A small town in the province of Travancore, having a bar harbour, 115 miles N.W. from Cape Comorin, lat. 9° 7′ N., lon. 76° 39′ E. Lime is burned here from muscle and oyster shells, immense quantities of which are found in the neighbouring salt lakes.—(*Fra. Paolo, &c.*)

Aiou Baba.—A Papuan isle five miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and situated to the north of Wageeoo. Lat. 0° 24′ N., lon. 131° 10′ E.

The inhabitants of Aiou Baba are mostly Papuas, with bushy frizzled hair. They cultivate little, having plenty of fish and turtle, which they barter at Wageeoo for sago. They also sell tortoise-shell and *biche-de-mar* to the Chinese traders, and occasionally birds of paradise are also to be purchased here. These islands formerly were nominally subject to the Sultan of Tidore.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Ajiyacotta.—A small town in the Coimbatoor district, the residence of a Poligar, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Nagajee river, about twenty miles E. by S. from Duraporam.

Aite.—A small town in the province of Agra, eighteen miles S.S.W. from Jaloun. Lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 79° 12′ E.

AJMEER, or RAJPOOTANA.

(Rajputana).—This large province is situated in the centre of Hindostan, between the 24th and 31st degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Mooltan, Lahore, and Delhi; on the south by Gujerat and Malwa; on the east it has Delhi and Agra; and on the west Mooltan, including the long principality of Sinde. In length from north to south, this province may be estimated at 350 miles by 200 the average breadth. It is occasionally named Marwar, but this appellation ought properly to be restricted to the Joudpoor territories. The principal modern geographical and territorial subdivisions are the following, commencing from the north:

1. The Bhatty country.
2. Bicanere.
3. The great Sandy desert.
4. Jesselmere.
5. Joudpoor.
6. Marwar.
7. Nagore.
8. Shekawatty.
9. Jeypoor.
10. Ajmeer district.
11. Harrowty.
12. Odeypoor.
13. Mewar.
14. Sarowy.

The soil of this province may well be called sandy, as it is by Abul Fazel, and its general appearance is sufficiently dismal, a considerable portion of it being absolute desert. From the western frontier of the Shekawutty country to Bahawulpoor, is a distance of 280 miles, of which only the last 100 miles south-west from Bahawulpoor is wholly destitute of inhabitants, water, and vegetation. From Shekawutty frontier to Poogul, a distance of 180 miles, the road is over hills and valleys of loose sand. These hillocks exactly resemble such as are formed by the wind on the sea-shore, but far exceeding them

in height, reaching from twenty to one hundred feet. They are said by the natives to shift their position, and to alter their shapes as the wind blows. During the summer the passage of this portion of the desert is dangerous, on account of the clouds of moving sand; but in winter they exhibit a greater degree of permanence, and besides phoke, bear a sort of grass, the thorny bushes of the baubool, and the bair or jujube, the aggregate presenting an appearance somewhat resembling verdure.

Among these suffocating sand-hills a miserable village is sometimes met with, consisting of a few round straw huts, with low sides and conical roofs, like little stooks of corn, surrounded by hedges of dry thorny branches, the whole extremely combustible. Surrounding these abodes of misery are a few fields, depending for moisture on dews and the periodical rains, cultivated with crops of the poorer kinds of pulse, and of bajarry, or the *holcus spicatus*, which last is raised with great difficulty. The wells are often 300 feet deep, and one in particular was found to be 345 feet; yet with this enormous descent, some are only three feet in diameter. An examination of the strata penetrated would be a curious and useful research. The water procured with so much trouble is always brackish, unwholesome, and extremely small in quantity. Two bullocks working for one night can always empty a well. These wells are lined with masonry, and on the occurrence of any exigence, by being covered with boards heaped over with sand, may be effectually concealed by the natives from their enemies, so that a scarcity of water is at once a source of woe and protection. In the midst of these burning sands, the most juicy of all fruits, the water melon, is found in astonishing profusion, growing from a small stalk not thicker than that of the common melon, and attaining a circumference of three and four feet. The optical illusion, termed *mirage* by the French, is common in this desert, and deceives travellers with the appearance of extensive lakes amidst parched and arid sands.

From Poogul to Bahawulpoor the road is over a hard flat clay, which sounds under the horses' feet like a board, and is wholly destitute of vegetation. Except the fort and pool of Moujghur, and two wells sixteen miles from Bahawulpoor, there is neither water nor inhabitants to be found, yet this is the road most frequented by caravans. On approaching within a few miles of Bahawulpoor, the desert ceases all at once, and a cultivated country, abounding with trees and water, commences. In some parts this desert is 400 miles in breadth, and extends far beyond the limits of Rajpootana. On the north it reaches to the edge of the Chinaub, where it is moderately fertile; on the east it gradually mixes with the cultivated parts of the Delhi and Agra provinces, and on the south is separated from the province of Cutch by the enormous salt marsh named the Runn. Such is the description of this desolate region, which seems to be progressively extending, yet it is within the influence of the periodical rains, which annually pour a deluge on its thirsty surface, where it is soon absorbed, and, for want of population and industry, lost to the service of man.

The common inhabitants of the desert are Jauts, the higher classes Rhatore Rajpoots. The first are little in stature, black in complexion, and ill-looking, presenting strong appearances of wretchedness and squalid poverty. The latter are stout and handsome, with hooked noses and Jewish features, haughty in their manners and indolent, and almost continually intoxicated with opium. The stock of the country consists of bullocks and camels, which last are numerous, and sometimes used in the plough. Of the wild animals the desert rat is most numerous, and in shape greatly resembles a squirrel. Foxes of small sizes and different colours also abound. Antelopes are found in some parts, and also the goorkhur, or wild ass, mentioned in the book of Job. This quadruped

more resembles a mule than an ass, and is remarkable for its shyness and speed. At a kind of shuffling trot, peculiar to itself, it will leave the fleetest horse behind.

This province is remarkable as being nearly destitute of rivers, except in the southern extremity, although the natives have traditions of streams that formerly traversed particular parts of it, but of which even the traces have long disappeared. In the more hilly parts of the south some mountain streams descend, but are unable to overcome the arid nature of the desert, and it would require infinite labour and a dense population to conduct canals from the rivers of the Punjab in Lahore. Except in the hilly districts, also, trees are little seen, though much wanted to shade the parched inhabitants: the consequence is that timber for building purposes is extremely scarce, the nearest supply being procured from Agra. The villages are generally built of a coarse stone brought from the adjacent hills, and even the roofs are usually of the same material. When of thatch, twisted grass is very often substituted for rafters. In the southern quarter nature has been less severe, as there the Chumbul, Calysind, and Banass, water a portion of Rajpootana, which also in different spots presents something like an appearance of verdure. The soil of the whole province is remarkably saline, containing many salt springs and lakes, such as that of Sambher, and generating nitre spontaneously. The water of a large proportion of the wells is also more or less brackish. Notwithstanding the combination of so many circumstances adverse to the agriculture of this province, it has been remarked, that in ordinary years there is not more variation in the price of grain through Ajmeer from December to December, than in the green and fertile province of Bengal, where always before harvest, grain rises to a pitch exceedingly distressing to the poor. Yet in the more sterile parts of Rajpootana there is only one crop annually. Towards the south large tracts occur that are wholly of a mountainous character, such as sections of Mewar and Jeypoor (or Dhoomdar), and elsewhere to the east. Between Marwar and Mewar peaks and mountains occur more than 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and towards its western boundary the mountains of Aboo are supposed to rise (for they have not yet been measured) to treble that height.

The three grand divisions of Rajpootana are, 1st. Odeypoor, named also Mewar, and its princes in history the Ranas of Chitore; 2d. Joudpoor, named also Marwar, and its sovereign occasionally described as the Rhatore Raja, being of that tribe; 3dly. Jeypoor, Jyenagur, or Ambher, three names of one state. These appear to have been the original Rajpoot states, the others having been formed from the dismemberment of territories from the dominions of these three: but in the latter days must be added the Rajas of Jesselmere and Bicanere, and the chiefs of Kotah, Boondee, and Banswara. Under these heads respectively, and of the other modern territorial subdivisions, further topographical details will be found, it being intended here only to exhibit a general view of the province. Besides these native chiefs, various portions of Rajpootana were until lately possessed by intruders, such as Sindia and Holkar, to the first of whom the city of Ajmeer and the forty-six surrounding pergunnahs belonged, and to the second the district of Tonk Rampoora, now possessed by Ameer Khan. On the south-eastern quarter are the principalities of Kotah, Boondee, and other Rajpoot states, formerly tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia; and from the whole province of Rajpootana, owing to the discord of their chiefs, every freebooter who could muster sufficient force was long accustomed to levy occasional contributions. The ancient Rajpoot families that have exercised power and stand first in reputation are the following:

The Sesodiyas..... of Odeypoor.

The Rhatores ..... Joudpoor.
Kutchwas ..... Jeypoor.
Chowhans ..... the Rajas of Kotah and Boondee spring from the Hara, a branch of the Chowhans.

The constitution of these countries resembles the feudal system, each district, town, and even village, being governed by petty chiefs, dignified with the title of thakoor or lord, who frequently yield but a nominal obedience to the person who has the reputation of being their sovereign or superior. The land rents are very low, but every village is obliged to furnish a certain number of horsemen at the shortest notice. The Rajpoots are hardy and brave, and extremely attached to their respective chiefs. They are also much addicted to the use of opium, this deleterious drug being produced by them on all occasions, and presented to visitors as betel is in other parts of India. They are usually divided into two great tribes, the Rhatores and the Chohan Seesodya Rajpoots. Respecting the number of inhabitants, but a very vague conjecture can be hazarded, the extent of country not absolutely desert or uninhabited being so enormous. By comparing, however, the area of the province with that of others similarly situated, the population of which has been better established, there is great reason to believe the whole does not much exceed four millions of souls, in the proportion of one Mahomedan to ten Hindoos. The principal towns are Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Odeypoor, Ajmeer, Neemutch, Kotah, Boondee, Chitore, Shapoorah, Bicanere, and Jesselmere.

Although Rajpootana is central to Hindostan, and its eastern frontier be within ninety miles of Delhi, it never was thoroughly subdued either by the Patan or Mogul dynasties. Rajas of Ajmeer are mentioned by Ferishta so early as A.D. 1008, at which period they joined a combination of Hindoo princes against Mahmood of Ghizni, and in 1193 it was conquered, or rather overrun, by Mahomed the first Gauride sovereign of India. After this date it continued tributary to the throne of Delhi, and on account of the rebellious conduct of its chiefs was frequently invaded by the emperors, who repeatedly took and destroyed all their capital towns. The province notwithstanding never became a regularly organized possession like Delhi, Agra, and many other countries much more remote from the seat of government, but remained in a sort of half independent condition, paying a tribute, and furnishing the imperial armies with a certain number of Rajpoot mercenaries, who were always held in high estimation for their bravery and fidelity, and served as a counterpoise to the Mogul and Afghan soldiery.

After the death of Aurungzebe in 1707, and the dissolution of the Mogul empire which ensued, it continued under a nominal subjection to the Delhi throne until about A.D. 1748, when total independence was assumed by its chiefs and princes. The interval elapsed since then has been occupied by internal warfare, and by invasions of the Maharattas and other hordes of plunderers. During the latter part of the reign of Madhajee Sindia, and the commencement of that of his nephew Dowlet Row, they were near being completely subdued by the disciplined infantry under Generals de Boigne and Perron, in the pay of these two chiefs. They were relieved from their apprehensions of impending subjugation by the depression, in 1803, of their grand oppressor Dowlet Row Sindia, whose means of inflicting evil were greatly curtailed by the war which he then undertook against the British government.

The Raja of Bicanere is probably the least important of the five princes of Rajpootana. Those of Joudpoor and Jeypoor are at the head of considerable states, and the reduced condition of the Odeypoor Raja is kept from total insignificance by his high rank, and the respect paid to him as the purest of the Rajpoot race. In

1807 a contest arose between the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor, each pretending to the honour of marrying the daughter of this high-born chieftain, and in the mean time allowing their dominions to be ravaged by Ameer Khan, Holkar and Sindia, who pretended to espouse the cause of each respectively, and in reality plundered both. In fact, for many years this large province was so unceasingly harassed and devastated by these depredators, that every one of the Rajpoot chiefs repeatedly begged and entreated to be admitted into a federal union with the British government, offering in some cases half their dominions for protection to the remainder; but the non-interfering system adopted by the latter did not permit of these overtures being accepted. A distinct perception of the misery they had suffered, was the sole motive which induced these proud and turbulent tribes so long and so unsuccessfully to seek a connexion with the British nation. This was at length conceded in 1818, when they were admitted into the general federation, by the conditions of which, mutual support in the field was plighted, while by the same instrument the feudal states (each equal and independent) are withheld from disturbing the general tranquillity by attacking each other. Their political differences are in future to be submitted to the arbitration of the British government, which averts the necessity of resorting to the sword on petty points of honour, heretofore rendered inevitable by the prejudices of the country. Where the government was exercised with any kind of efficiency, there was no difficulty in settling the terms, which were to pay the tribute demandable by the Patans or Maharattas into the British treasury at Delhi, which would account for the amount to the respective parties. The great mass of the cultivators were highly pleased with these arrangements, and the prospect of future safety which it afforded them; but some of the old thakoors, and higher classes of nobility, were not equally satisfied with the change, as under the prior anarchy they were fast establishing a species of independence in their respective jaghires, which they were compelled to relinquish.

It was an important part of the original plan, not hastily to urge the whole mass of military adventurers to despair, by depriving them at once of their accustomed means of subsistence; accordingly Sir David Ochterlony made the tender of service to eight of the best Patan battalions and to about 3,000 horse. The first, after pensioning off the superior native officers, were formed into four battalions for provincial duties, two of which were sent to the Delhi province, and the other two retained in Rajpootana, British officers being appointed to command the whole. The horse were formed into risallas of 500 each, and as only the best were taken, rendered good service. In this manner was the destruction of the predatory Patan power, which had been expected to require the greatest exertion of military resources, wholly accomplished by the extraordinary address with which Sir D. Ochterlony combined negotiation with skilful military movements.

By these arrangements the Rajpoot states were entirely liberated from Maharatta interference, and placed under General Ochterlony as resident and commander of the forces in Rajpootana, where cantonments have been formed at Neemutch and Nusserabad, near the city of Ajmeer, which, along with the pergunnahs adjacent, was received from Sindia in exchange for a portion of the Peshwa's territories in Malwa. Since that event multitudes of people have emerged from the hills and fastnesses, where they had sought refuge, and have again occupied their ancient and long-deserted villages. In no part of Hindostan has the British regime had the advantage of so favourable a contrast with that which it supplanted as in Rajpootana, the transition having been so sudden, and no where are the peasantry so uni-

versally sensible of the great improvement in their condition which has taken place. Security and comfort are now established, where misery and terror before existed, and the ploughshare is again in peace turning up a soil, which for many seasons had never been stirred except by the hoofs of predatory cavalry. But although the Rajpoot states, by the recent course of events, have gained deliverance from an oppression more systematic and brutal, than perhaps ever before trampled on humanity, it is not to be expected they will all at once abandon their irregular habits, or that tribes, who according to their own notions were created for the express purpose of fighting, will so suddenly change their natures as not to require the frequent interference of the British, and their military coercion.—(*Elphinstone, Metcalfe, Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Fullarton, &c.*)

Ajmeer (*Ajamer, from Aja, a goat, and meru, the sacred mountain at the North Pole*).—A city in the province of Ajmeer, of which it was the former capital, lat. 26° 31′ N., lon. 74° 28′ E., eighty miles W.S.W. from Jeypoor. It stands at the bottom of a hill, the summit of which, named Taraghur, is fortified, and was formerly considered impregnable to open force. In 1819 the interior was very ruinous, owing to its long misgovernment, but the inhabitants were again collecting from various quarters. The houses are of masonry, and though decayed, still present indications of former opulence. The old palace and gardens of Shah Jehan still exist, and the former contain several habitable rooms. The principal object of attraction, however, is the tomb of Khoja Moyen ud Deen, a renowned Mahomedan saint, to whose tomb the great and wise emperor Acber made a pilgrimage from Agra (230 miles) barefoot, in order to procure male progeny, in which he succeeded. Crowds of pilgrims still frequent the saint's tomb, and in Malwa it is not uncommon for pilgrims who have been at the Ajmeer sanctuary, to set up a brick or stone taken from the tomb, near their dwelling, and become saints themselves, and have pilgrimages made to them in consequence of possessing such a relic. Madhajee and Dowlet Row Sindia, although Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion were remarkable for their devotion to Mussulman saints and customs, and bestowed rich gifts on this tomb, and its peerzadas or attendant priests. Jehangeer, the son and successor of the emperor Acber, occasionally kept his court here, which caused the embassy of Sir Thomas Row in 1616, at which period the East-India Company had a regular factory established here. Four miles from hence is a remarkable place of Hindoo pilgrimage named Pooskhur (the lake or tank), and at Nusserabad, fifteen miles distant S.S.E. from the city, are the cantonments of a British brigade.

This city was acquired by treaty from Dowlet Row Scindia in 1818, and was found by Sir David Ochterlony in a state of the utmost desolation and decay, but when revisited in 1823, he was surprised at the rapid improvement it had experienced under the management of Mr. Wilder the civil commissioner. Commerce had completely revived, and the population more than tripled since 1818; new houses and shops were daily erecting, under a system of architectural uniformity, making Ajmeer altogether one of the most regular and handsome cities within the British dominions, and externally only second to Jeypoor, on account of the multitude of religious edifices possessed by the latter, the result of many ages. The native population were fully sensible of their own improved condition within so short a space of time, and expressed their consciousness and surprise. Travelling distance from Delhi 230 miles; from Bombay 650; and from Calcutta 1,030 miles.—(*Sir D. Ochterlony, Broughton, Rennell, Fullarton, MS. &c.*)

AJUNTEE *(Ajayanti, the difficult or impregnable pass)*.—A town situated near a celebrated pass through the Berar mountains, fifty-three miles N. by E. from Aurungabad, lat. 20° 34′ N., lon. 75° 56′ E. The ascent to Ajuntee is by a wide and tolerably well constructed road, protected at the summit by a gateway, leading through a stone fortification that lines the cliff. The town stands on a table land two miles distant from the summit, and covers a large extent of surface, but in 1820 was still thinly inhabited. At the northern entrance of the town there is an octagonal serai of a striking appearance, and at six miles distance there are some Hindoo cave temples resembling those of Ellora and Elephanta, which have not yet been explored.—*(Fullarton, Lt. Bayley, &c.)*

AKEEPOOR.—A small town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Dewas, which in 1820 contained 200 houses.

AKOAT.—A town in Berar, twenty-nine miles W.S.W. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 6′ N., lon. 77° 9′ E.

AKOLAH.—A considerable city in the province of Berar, with high handsome walls, and surrounded by extensive ruins; lat. 20° 42′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

AKOGUR.—A town in the province of Agra, thirty-two miles west from Bhurtpoor, lat. 27° 16′ N., lon. 76° 52′ E.

AKRAUNY.—A fortified town in the province of Candeish, among the Satpoora mountains, belonging to a petty Raja lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 74° 24′ E. Seventy-five miles E. from Broach, at a short distance to the north of this place, there are passes into the Naundode and Sultanpoor districts.—*(Malcolm, &c.)*

AKULCOTTA.—A town and small district in the province of Beeder, bounded by the Seena river. The town stands in lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 76° 18′ E., sixty miles N.N.E. from the city of Bejapoor.

AKYAB.—The name of the principal military station in the province of Arracan, the situation of which has not yet been laid down in any map.

ALAKANANDA RIVER.—A sacred river of northern Hindostan, which springs from the Himalaya mountains, and joins the Bhagirathi at Devaprayaga, the junction of the two forming the Ganges. A very short distance above Bhadrinath, the breadth of the Alakananda does not exceed twenty feet, and further up the stream is concealed under an immense heap of snow, the accumulation of ages. At Devaprayaga the Alakananda is the largest river, being 142 feet in breadth, and rising during the rains forty-seven feet above its lowest level. In this river are a great many fish of the roher species *(cyprinus denticulatus)* four or five feet in length, which are fed daily by the Brahmins, and some are so tame as to take bread out of the hand. There is also a species of fish named soher, six or seven feet long; the scales on the back and sides are large, of a beautiful green, and encircled with a white golden border; the belly white, slightly tinged with a gold colour; the tail and fins of a dark bronze. The flavour of this fish is equal to its beauty, being remarkably fine and delicate.—*(Raper, &c.)*

ALFOREZE or HORAFORAZ.—See BORNEO.

ALGUARDA.—A Portuguese fortress in the province of Bejapoor, commanding the entrance of the harbour of Goa, situated on a point of land to the north of Goa bay.

ALIBUNDER.—A town belonging to the Ameers of Sinde, sixty-three miles E. by S. from Tatta; lat. 24° 24′ N., lon. 69° 13′ E. At this place a small branch of the Goonee river is stopped by a mound of earth, which separates it from the Lukputbunder river.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

ALIGAUM.—A town in Berar, sixty-eight miles S.W. from Ellichpoor, lat. 20° 26′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E.

ALIGHUR DISTRICT.—A district in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, situated about the 28th deg. of N. lat. To the north it has the district of Merut, or South Saharunpoor; to the south those of Agra and Furruckabad; to the east it has Furruckabad and Bareilly; and on the west, Agra and the Delhi reserved territories. The two boundary streams are the Ganges and Jumna, and in the interior are many watercourses or rivulets, which during the rains have a current, but are dry for the rest of the year. The northern portion of this district extending, from Alighur to the vicinity of Delhi, is one of the most desolate tracts in the Doab. Scarcely a tree is to be seen, but low dark jungle abounds, and afforded at one period a convenient harbour for the banditti that then infested the province. The country to the southward of Alighur is in general highly cultivated. The principal towns are Alighur, Coel, Hatras, Moorsaun, and Anopshehr, and it fell under the British dominion in A.D. 1803.

In 1815, this district was estimated to contain 1,640,242 pucka begas in cultivation, assessed at 31,49,809 rupees, or one rupee fifteen annas per bega; but the large talooks of Thakoor Diaram were not included, no particulars respecting them being then known. There were also 1,147,045 begas fit for cultivation, and 1,188,665 waste. The soil is fertile and productive under proper cultivation, and the natives a race superior to the Bengalese, and the other more eastern tribes; but until the conquest of Hatras turbulent, predatory, and difficult to govern.—(*Blunt, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

ALIGHUR *(Alighar)*.—The capital of the above district, lat. 27° 56′ N., lon. 77° 59′ E., fifty-three miles north from the city of Agra. In 1803 it was one of Dowlet Row Scindia's principal depôts for military stores, and was then stormed by the army under Lord Lake, with great slaughter to the assailants. It was soon after made the head-quarters of a civil establishment for the collection of the revenue, and the administration of justice, subordinate to the Bareilly division.

Properly speaking, there is no town of Alighur. Coel, about two miles distant, is the town and the residence of the civil authorities. The fort is of a square form with round bastions, a formidable ditch and glacis, and a single entrance protected by a strong ravelin. A considerable sum, prior to 1820, had been expended in reducing the rampart and otherwise improving the defences. The interior is now cleared of all buildings whatever, and of the public and private buildings formerly occupied by General Perron and his officers not a vestige remains.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ALINGAR.—A wide valley in Afghanistan, district of Lughman, chiefly inhabited by Ghiljie Afghans, who to the pastoral employment of shepherds unite the predatory vocation of thieves. This valley produces grain of all sorts, and has many glens that open into it on both sides, some of which are separated by narrow summits from the adjacent valley of Cooner. When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, this tract was subject to the throne of Delhi, and emperor Acber.—(*Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

ALIPORA.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, fifteen miles S.W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 79° 19′ E.

ALIPOOTA.—A town in Ceylon situated on the top of a hill in a populous neighbourhood, and the principal military station in lower Ouva; lat. 6° 54′ N., lon. 81° 25′ E., fifty-three miles S.E. from Candy.

ALISHUNG.—A valley in Afghanistan, division of Lughman, at present (1809) chiefly inhabited by converted Caffres. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "The district of Alishung is surrounded by large mountains covered

with snow, in which is the source of the river Alishung; the inhabitants are called Caffres."—(*Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, &c.*)

ALKOONDARA DROOG.—A small and decayed fort in the Balaghaut province, situated on a low hill with a miserable village below, six miles S.W. from the town of Bellary.—(*Fullarton.*)

ALLAHABAD.

A large province of Hindostan proper situated between the 24th and 26th degrees of north lat. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Oude and Agra; on the south by the Hindoo province of Gundwana; to the east it has the provinces of Bahar and Gundwana; and on the west Malwa and Agra. In length it may be estimated at 270 miles by 120, the average breadth. At present the principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following: 1. The district of Allahabad; 2. Benares; 3. The district of Mirzapoor; 4. The district of Juanpoor; 5. The Rewah territory; 6. The district of Bundelcund; 7. The district of Cawnpoor; 8. The Manicpoor territory.

The surface of the province adjacent to the rivers Ganges and Jumna is flat and very productive; but to the south-west, in the Bundelcund district, the country forms an elevated table-land, diversified with high hills, containing the diamond mines of Pannah, and formerly abounding in strong holds. The flat country is extremely sultry, and subject to the hot winds, from which the more elevated region is exempted. In the north the principal rivers are the Ganges, Jumna, Goomty, and Caramnassa, and their branches, besides innumerable smaller streams. In the hilly country the rivers are fewer, the periodical rains and well water being chiefly relied on for agricultural purposes; but, upon the whole, Allahabad may be reckoned one of the richest and most productive provinces of Hindostan.

The principal exports are sugar, cotton, indigo, cotton cloths, opium, saltpetre, diamonds, &c. The imports are various, salt from the maritime parts of Bengal being one of the staple articles in regular demand. Within the limits of this province are many large, ancient, and celebrated towns, such as Benares, Allahabad (two holy places of pilgrimage), Callinjer, Chatterpoor, Juanpoor, Mirzapoor, Chunar, and Ghazipoor. The population is very great, in the proportion of about one Mahomedan to seven Hindoos.

We learn from Abul Fazel that the territory composing the modern province of Allahabad was invaded so early as A.D. 1020 by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, who made a few compulsory converts to the Mahomedan faith. He returned again in 1023, but made no permanent establishment. It was afterwards wholly subdued by the Patan emperors of Delhi, and during the fifteenth century formed the basis of an independent kingdom, the capital of which was Juanpoor. Along with the other Patan districts it devolved to the Moguls, and was formed into a distinct soubah by the Emperor Acber, who new-named the Hindoo sanctuary (or prayaga) Allahabad, an appellation which it still retains. After the fall of the Mogul dynasty, the northern quarter was appropriated by the Nabobs of Oude; but in 1764 Korah and Allahabad were ceded to Shah Allum, the then nominal and fugitive sovereign of Delhi, through the interference of Lord Clive with Shuja-ud-Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude. In 1772 they reverted to the latter, when that ill-advised monarch (Shah Allum) of his own accord returned to Delhi, and became an engine of mischief in the custody of the Maharattas.

In 1775, the Bengal government acquired the Benares districts by treaty with Asoph-ud-Dowlah, and Allahabad and the adjacent districts in 1801, by cession from Saadet-Ali, his successor on the throne of Oude. The south-eastern districts were re-

ceived from the Mahratta Peshwa in 1803, in exchange for an equivalent tract in the Carnatic above the ghauts and in Gujerat.—(*Abul Faxel, J. Grant, Fifth Report, Ironside, &c.*)

Allahabad District.—This judicial subdivision is mostly composed of territory immediately adjacent to the city of Allahabad, and is intersected by the great rivers Ganges and Jumna, but the geographical distribution is ill-arranged, as some portions are ninety and one hundred miles from the residence of the magistrate. The soil when properly cultivated is remarkably fertile, and yields large returns to the husbandman. Wheat is the principal crop, and the land most favourable for its production a rich sandy loam, which is a very common soil in this vicinity. During the dry season the land must be artificially watered, which is a much more laborious task than the cultivation. Four bullocks and three labourers are with difficulty able to water an acre in nine days; the average crop is reckoned fifteen maunds per bega, or about seven quarters per acre. Barley, peas, oil, seeds, and a yellow dye are often mixed with the wheat. The average rent of wheat land is about one pound sterling per acre.

In this district the breed of sheep is small even for India, and the fleece consists of a coarse black wool, or rather hair, altogether unsuitable for cloth, but which answers very well for the manufacture of shepherd's rugs. The usual dress of the peasantry is merely a piece of coarse cloth tied round the middle, one blanket, and a sort of turban made of a cotton clout, these three articles composing the sum total of their wardrobe. The internal commerce has progressively increased since 1801, and the culture of many articles, especially indigo and cotton, very greatly augmented, on account of the increased and increasing demand from Europe.

In every subdivision there is a small trade of cloth, grain, and other home productions. In the towns of Currah and Shahzadpoor a considerable quantity of cotton cloths and chintzes was formerly manufactured for exportation, but now it is much reduced. In Allahabad and Futtehpoor advances are still made for the species of cloth named baftaes and sullums. The transit commerce through Allahabad consists mostly of Sambher salt, cotton, unwrought iron, and shawl goods, which, after supplying local consumption, are forwarded to the lower provinces. Prior to 1802, a considerable commerce was carried on at Phoolpoor, in pergunnah Secundra, to the north of the Ganges. The commodities circulated were salt, cotton, iron, drugs of various kinds, copper, zinc, lead, broad-cloth, and other articles of Bengal, but the traders then were so much oppressed by the Nabob of Oude's officers, that they retired with their capital to Mirzapoor, and other places of greater security. Shahzadpoor and Phoolpoor are still much resorted to by traders from the Nabob of Oude's reserved dominions, and until 1794, while the cloths manufactured in the Doab were much in demand for the European market, many mercantile houses were enabled to invest from fifteen to twenty thousand rupees monthly, in the article of cloth alone. Since that time the cloths termed sullums, baftaes, Shahzadpoor chintzes, and the red kurwa, have been most in demand.

The revenue settlement originally formed here, in the fusly or financial year 1216, underwent two subsequent revisions:

In 1216 (A.D. 1809-10) the terms were	Rupees 2,590,806
1217	2,667,614
1218	2,682,084
1219 (*provisionally and in perpetuity*)	2,713,081

Although this settlement exhibits on the face of the account a progressive increase, it greatly falls short of the jumma or assessment to the land revenue which the district was expected to yield on its first acquisition. This has been attributed to mistaken

zeal on the first introduction of the British government, by immediately carrying the assessment to the highest point which the land was capable of sustaining. The fatal results of this inconsiderate arrangement, in the first instance, were remissions and irrecoverable balances to a large amount, and a sudden fall of the revenue at the formation of the second settlement. Added to these evils were numerous transfers of estates by public and private sale, amounting in some pergunnahs to a total devolution of the principal and most valuable portion of the district, into the hands of the actual tehsildars, or subordinate revenue officers. A great shock was in consequence sustained by the credit of government, from such persons having been allowed to pervert their official influence, and the old proprietors did not disguise their hopes of recovering their estates by the termination and subversion of the British predominance.

On the formation of a subsequent settlement measures were taken by the commissioners, Sir Edward Colebrooke and Mr. Dean, for cancelling a great number of these illicit and fraudulent transfers, leaving the parties, should they consider themselves wronged by this proceeding, to establish their claims in a court of justice: but the relief thus afforded bore a small proportion to the extent of the grievance. In the Allahabad district, the russud, or progressively increasing jumma, originated probably in the efforts of the local revenue officers to carry the assessment to the highest practicable pitch, having in their view the perpetuity of the land-tax at the expiration of the lease. It would, however, have proved more conducive to the prosperity of the country, and ultimately to the improvement of the revenue, if the landholder had at the commencement enjoyed the full benefit of a moderate and equal assessment, under the temporary settlements.

In every district subordinate to the British authority throughout Hindostan, the state of its police is the next important feature of its history, and its gaol the most imposing edifice. In the Allahabad jurisdiction, forty-six gang robberies were committed during the year 1811; but this offence did not generally prevail, being of much more frequent occurrence in the police stations, which are not situated within the Doab, but lie immediately on the borders of the Oude reserved territories, or adjacent to the then independent and turbulent state of Rewah. The two pergunnahs in which gang robberies are still most frequent are Secundra, situated on the north side of the Ganges, near the Nabob of Oude's dominions, and Barah, situated to the south of the Ganges, contiguous to the Rewah country. With respect to the first, it was clearly ascertained, that not one of the perpetrators lived in the Allahabad district, the atrocities having been committed by a banditti residing within the Oude boundaries; and in the last the depredators looked for an asylum and market for their booty in Rewah. In some instances these crimes were committed by ousted zemindars whose estates had been sold, and were actuated by malice against the purchasers. Although many applications had been made to the Rewah Raja for the apprehension of the criminals, no steps to effect that object were taken, or probably intended, by that potentate.

The pasees or village watchmen had long been suspected of not performing the functions of their office with either honesty or vigilance, and in 1812, were discovered to be a most numerous class of thieves in the district. In that year an affray of considerable magnitude took place respecting disputed boundaries, in which, although the land in dispute amounted to only four begahs (or one acre and a-third), 900 men belonging to different villages were engaged. On this occasion 130 were seized and sent to the magistrate for examination, but it may be much doubted

whether the seizure of so many persons is likely to restore good order, or whether so satisfactory a result can be expected, as shall compensate for the time the magistrate must devote to it, to the serious prejudice of his other duties.

In 1815, the inhabitants generally evinced great hostility to the introduction of the chokeydary system (an improved establishment of watchmen), and no respectable inhabitant came forward to receive sunnuds. The class denominated Pragwals, who perform the religious ceremonies at the junction of the great rivers, to the number of four or five thousand, shewed a determination to resist, threatened to cease to officiate, and withdraw altogether, which would have caused a loss to the government of the pilgrim revenue. Many other conspiracies to arrest the progress of the arrangements took place, but by patience and firmness were ultimately dissipated or suppressed. In 1815 this district was found to contain 1,655,106 small begahs in cultivation, assessed at 2,793,244 rupees, or one rupee eleven annas per begah, which revenue was realized. The number of begahs fit for cultivation was 395,012, and 1,109,777 were waste land. This settlement was made with 1811 engaging proprietors, and sixty-four farmers of revenue.—(*Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Tennant, Gutthrie, Fortescue, Lowther, &c.*)

ALLAHABAD.—A fortified town in the province of Allahabad, of which it is the capital. Lat. 25° 27′ N., lon. 81° 50′ E. The fort is placed at the distance of a quarter of a mile on a tongue of land, one side being washed by the Jumna, and the other approaching near the Ganges. It is lofty and extensive, and completely commands the navigation of the two rivers; indeed, there are probably few buildings of equal size in Europe. Next the two rivers it is defended by the old walls, beautifully built of polished free stone with semi-circular bastions at intervals, having cannon mounted. The third or land-side is perfectly regular, and very strong, consisting of three ravelins, two bastions, and a half bastion. The gateway is Grecian, and elegant. The government-house is spacious and cool, and has some large subterranean rooms overhanging the river. In the angle is a square, where Shah Allum, when he resided here, had his seraglio. The military cantonments stand at some distance from the fort and the houses occupied by the civil functionaries apart from both. To an European army a regular siege would be necessary, but to the tactics of a native army Allahabad is quite impregnable, and has in consequence been selected as the grand military depôt of the upper provinces. The most remarkable buildings in the neighbourhood are the serai and mausoleums of Sultan Khusro and his mother, the Chalees Sittoon (forty pillars) being no longer in existence. A short distance above the town the government has established a gunpowder manufactory. Up to 1803, the sum expended on the fortifications was twelve lacs of rupees.

The situation of Allahabad being alike adapted for the purposes of internal commerce and defence, must have early pointed it out as an eligible spot for the foundation of a city, and most probably it is the site of the ancient Palibothra. In modern times, from its geographical position, it appears well calculated to be the emporium of Oude, Bundelcund, and Bogalcund. It formerly ranked as a considerable mart for the cotton of the Deccan, and of the countries to the south of the Jumna: but owing to the extortions practised on the merchants by the native revenue officers of the Oude government, the trade gradually resorted to Mirzapoor, and abandoned this port although so eligibly situated. Nine-tenths of the present native buildings are of mud, raised on the foundations of more substantial brick edifices, which have long fallen to decay. In 1803 the inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison, were estimated at 20,000

persons. Much of the soil in the immediate vicinity consists of brick-dust, mortar, and broken pottery. The Ganges here is about a mile broad, and does not appear much augmented by the tribute of the Jumna, although the latter is 1,400 yards across.

By the Brahmins Allahabad is called Bhat Prayag, or by way of distinction, as it is the largest and most holy, is simply designated by the name of Prayaga. The other four Prayagas, or sacred confluences of rivers (called sungums in the south of India) are situated in Gurwal, at the junction of the Alacananda with other streams, and are named Devaprayaga, Rudraprayaga, Carnaprayaga, and Nandaprayaga. The prayaga of Allahabad owes its celebrity to the junction at this spot of the Ganges, Jumna, and Sereswati. There is no such river as the last now visible in the neighbourhood, but the Hindoos assert that it joins the other two underground, and that consequently by bathing here, the same religious merit is acquired as if the penitent had bathed in the whole three separately. When a pilgrim arrives here, he sits down on the brink of the river, and has his head and body shaved so that each hair may fall into the water, the sacred writings promising him one million of years residence in heaven for every hair thus deposited. After shaving he bathes, and the same day, or the next, performs the obsequies of his deceased ancestors. The tax accruing to government for permission to bathe is only three rupees each person; but a much greater expense is incurred in charity and gifts to the Brahmins, who are seen sitting by the river side. Many persons renounce life at this holy confluence, by going in a boat, after performance of certain solemnities, to the exact spot where the three rivers unite, where the devotee plunges into the stream, with three pots of water tied to his body. Occasionally also some lose their lives by the eagerness of the devotees to rush in and bathe at the most sanctified spot, at a precise period of the moon, when the expiation possesses the highest efficacy. The Bengalese usually perform the pilgrimages of Gaya, Benares, and Allahabad in one journey, and thereby acquire great merit in the estimation of their countrymen.

Abstract of receipts and disbursements for 1812-13, the number of pilgrims being 218,792.

Amount of collections		223,563
Repaid to the account of Dowlet Row Sindia		175
		223,388
Fines from persons attempting to bathe without licenses	1,085	
		224,473
Charges of the establishment	3,407	
Net receipts in 1812-13.....		221,066

So great a congregation of people as met in 1812, at the melah or fair, had not occurred for twenty-eight years, on which account many precautions became necessary to preserve the lives of the pilgrims from the effects of their own inconsiderate ardour. In 1815-16 the gross collections were only 79,779 rupees; charges and commission, 6,726 rupees; net collections, 73,053 rupees.

Allahabad is the permanent station of the sudder commission, a body of judges, whose office is the same with regard to these provinces as that of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlet in Calcutta for the more eastern portions of the empire. Owing to the remoteness of the first, very great frauds and extortions had been committed by the native agents of the local courts, mostly Bengalese, who by the influence of their stations had engrossed much of the landed property. This commission has succeeded in recovering many of these fraudulent acquisitions to the rightful heir. This court makes circuits during the months that permit travelling, generally pitching their tents

near towns, and holding their courts under trees, an arrangement extremely agreeable to native prejudices, especially those of the lower classes, who always feel afraid and under a constraint in a house, particularly if furnished after the European fashion, where they can neither tell their story well or attend to what is going on.

The great emperor Acber was always partial to Allahabad, and was the founder of the modern city, intending it as a strong-hold to overawe the surrounding countries, for which purpose, from local circumstances, it was well adapted. In 1765 it was taken by the British army under Sir Robert Fletcher. Following the course of the river Allahabad is 820 miles from the sea, but the travelling distance is only 550 miles; from Benares, 53; from Lucknow, 127; from Agra, 296; and from Delhi 212 miles.—(*Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Ward, Tennant, Fullarton, Rennell, &c.*)

ALLAMBADY.—A town in the Mysore province, seventy-four miles E.S.E. from Scringapatam.

ALLAND.—A town in the province of Beeder, twenty-three miles N. by W. from Calberga, lat. 17° 30′ N., lon. 76° 41′ E.

ALLAS *(Straits of)*.—This channel separates the large island of Sumbhawa from Lombook Isle, and by the natives is called Gilleesee. In extent it is about forty-five miles, and forms the safest and most convenient passage to the east of Java through the Sunda chain of islands. On each side there are soundings where ships may anchor with moderate tides when necessary, and the plantations and villages on the Lambook shore, which is low land, afford ample supplies of refreshment.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

ALLESTAR.—A populous town in the peninsula of Malacca four hours pull up the Queda river, situated two or three leagues up a river, and in 1785 the residence of the king. In 1823 it contained 2,000 houses; the inhabitants consisted of Chuleas, Malays, and Chinese, the latter having a temple.—(*Dalrymple, Haensel, Anderson, &c.*)

ALLOWALLA.—A petty Seik state in the north-eastern quarter of the province of Delhi, which in 1824 was held by Futteh Singh, a powerful chief, much in favour with Runjeet Singh of Lahore, and possessing lands on both sides of the Sutuleje.

ALLUMPARVA.—A small town in the Carnatic, twenty-five miles N. by E. from Pondicherry; lat. 12° 15′ N., lon. 80° 2′ E. It was taken from the French by Col. Coote in 1760.—(*Orme, &c.*)

ALLY *(or Ally Mohun)*.—A town and small principality in the province of Malwa, district of Rath, situated about twelve miles north of the Nerbudda, lat. 22° 5′ N., lon. 74° 18′ E. In 1820 this petty state comprehended 176 towns and villages, which yielded a gross revenue of 30,000 rupees. The jungles of Ally and Mohun are wild, thinly inhabited, and extremely difficult to penetrate, on account of the badness of the roads and scarcity of water, and were formerly considered one of the defences of the adjacent province of Gujerat.—(*Malcolm, Burr, &c.*)

ALLYGUNGE *(Aliganj)*.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, forty miles N.N.E. from the town of Purneah; lat. 26° 16′ N., lon. 87° 38′ E.

ALMORA.—The modern capital of Kumaon, built on the ridge of a mountain 5,337 feet above the level of the sea, ninety miles N. by E. from the city of Bareilly, and about 106 miles travelling distance N.E. from Moradabad, by the route of the Bamouree pass and Rampoor; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

This is a compactly-built town, consisting of a single paved street, fifty feet in width, three-fourths of a mile long, crowning the sharp ridge of a mountain, and is by far the most considerable town, indeed

the only considerable one, in the newly-acquired British possessions in northern Hindostan. The houses are built of stone, slated, and generally two, some three stories high, the ground-floors occupied as shops, and open in front, while the upper stories are faced with a frame-work of wood, occasionally carved and painted, supported on the projecting side walls below. The population of Almora does not correspond with its external appearance; at least in 1819, many of the largest dwellings were without any ascertained or *bonâ fide* proprietor, and had fallen into the hands of persons who had no just claim to them. Small stacks of straw are piled up on the sloping roofs as winter provender for the cattle.

The old Gorkha citadel, built of stone, stands on a commanding point of the ridge at the eastern extremity, and several martello towers have been erected on peaks to the eastward. A new citadel, named Fort Moira, in the form of a parallelogram with six bastions, has been constructed on a small eminence at the western extremity of the town. All these defences, however, being built of the loose micaceous schistus, which composes the entire hill of Almora, and most others in its vicinity, their duration is not likely to be remarkable: indeed, in 1820, a party of sappers and miners were sent to destroy the works and dismantle the fortress. The surrounding country is remarkably bleak and naked, scarcely a tree being seen within a circuit of four miles from the walls. Almora was acquired by the Gorkhas in 1790, who were expelled by the British in 1815, at which date the inhabitants were mostly foreigners, emigrants from the low lands.—(*Fullarton, Raper, F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Aloor.—A large irregular village in the Carnatic, district of Nellore, seventeen miles N.W. from the town of Nellore, lat. 14° 40′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E. In the vicinity there is a fine reservoir, and a small bungalow, where European travellers may be accommodated.

Alote.—A small town and pergunnah in the province of Malwa, belonging to the Raja of Dewass, about twenty-one miles distant from Mahidpoor, lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E. In 1820 the town contained 400, and the pergunnah 2,316 houses, of which forty-seven were inhabited by Mahomedans, and 2,269 by Hindoos; total population 11,580 souls.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Alumchun.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-two miles N.W. from the city of Allahabad, lat. 25° 34′ N., lon. 81° 31′ E.

Alumpoor.—A town belonging to Holcar, in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles N.E. from Ditteah, lat. 26° 3′ N., lon. 78° 45′ E.

Alvar (*Alur or Macherry*).—A principality in upper Hindostan, mostly situated in the north-western quarter of the Agra province, between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. In the Mahomedan histories it is occasionally named Mewat, and its inhabitants Mewaties, although this appellation ought to have been restricted to the more thievish portion of them. Alvar proper, is a hilly and woody tract, lying on the south-west of Delhi, and to the north-west of Agra, confining the low country along the western side of the river Jumna. Although this country is situated in the centre of upper Hindostan, and within twenty-five miles of Delhi, its inhabitants have always been described as singularly savage and brutal, and robbers by profession, never to be reformed or subdued. In this last capacity, under the name of Mewaties, they were formerly taken into the pay of the native chiefs, on account of their expertness in the arts of desolation, for the purpose of more effectually ravaging any country which happened to be the seat of war.

In modern times a new potentate has arisen, named the Macherry Raja, within whose sway Alvar and several

adjacent districts, equal to about 3,000 square miles, are now comprehended, but greatly intermingled with those belonging to the British government, and to contiguous native chiefs. The chief towns in his dominions are Alvar, Macherry, Tejarah, Rajghur, and Alinuggur or Ghosauly. Macherry gives its name to the principality, and its chief is thence called the Macherry Raja, but Alvar or Aloor is the real capital. Tejarah was formerly the capital of Mewat, and, like all other old cities, had several pergunnahs annexed to it. It is now in ruins, but the fort is kept in repair to curb the depredations of the Mewaties. Ghosauly is a large town, whose fields are irrigated by water-conduits from the Laswary river. Six miles west of that town a new fort has been erected by the Raja, named Govindghur.

The Laswary river has its source in the Macherry country, about four miles west of Niranpoor, from whence it proceeds through Acberpoor ghaut, by Mahoor and Bambolee to Laswary town. Near Mulpoor an embankment has been constructed across the bed of the river, and the current is conducted by numerous water-courses to the interior of the Raja's country. The former direction of the Laswary stream was by Neano and Ketwaree, through the Ploundah pass to Koh, where it was lost; but it now seldom passes Deeg, and could never, except during uncommonly heavy rains, have reached Bhurtpoor. In November 1806, the stream of the Laswary was only one foot deep, and the Macherry Raja being desirous of monopolizing the whole, without allowing any to proceed to the Bhurtpoor country, a dispute ensued, which could only be amicably adjusted by the interference of the British government. Considering how hilly a large proportion of the Macherry territories are, they are tolerably well cultivated.

Row Raja Pertaub Singh, the father of the Raja who reigned in 1805, was a subject of the Jeypoor Raja's, and his manager at Macherry about the year 1780. He subsequently revolted from his master, and obtained a grant of lands in the Jeypoor country from Nudjiff Khan, with the title of Row Raja. When Nudjiff Khan was engaged in a war with the Bhurtpoor chief, Pertaub Singh wrested Alvar, the present capital, and other districts, from the Bhurtpoor state, and added them to his own. Some time after he quarrelled with his patron Nudjiff Khan, and was deprived of all his possessions except the fortress of Luchmenghur, where he was besieged by Nudjiff Khan, but saved by the approach of the rainy season; and the latter, whose hands were always full of business, being called elsewhere, Pertaub Singh remained in the government. After that period he maintained his station by temporizing with the strongest party. In 1805 his revenues were estimated at seven lacks of rupees, and it was then said he discouraged cultivation that his country might present fewer temptations to invaders, and to augment its difficulties, built several forts. Latterly his policy has been quite the reverse, for in 1823 his country presented a most flourishing appearance.

In 1803, a treaty of alliance was concluded by Lord Lake, on the part of the British government, with the Macherry Raja, by the conditions of which he was taken under its protection on the usual terms, with which he seemed well satisfied, as throughout the hazardous and energetic campaign of 1804 he continued faithful; for which, in 1805, he was rewarded by a considerable addition of territory, mostly resumed from the Bhurtpoor Raja as a punishment for his treachery.

The second range of mountains, commencing on the west of Padshapoor to the Acberpoor Ghaut, beyond Alvar, is inhabited by Mewaties. Tejarah was the ancient capital of the Mewat country, which contained many pergunnahs, equivalent to an area of about 1,952 square miles. Of this space, in 1807, about 465 belonged to the British, 263 to Ahmed

Buksh Khan, 304 to the Bhurtpoor Raja, and 921 to the Raja of Macherry. On account of the turbulent disposition of the inhabitants, the influence of any chief over them was very feeble, and the authority of the Macherry Raja was but little attended to. In 1807, the predatory incursions of the Mewaties into the British territories became so daring and frequent, that no person could stir out of the military cantonments at Rewary without an escort, and the high road from Delhi and Rewary was no longer practicable for the merchant or traveller unless protected by a strong guard. A band of these marauders, here named Cozauks, had the boldness to attack the town of Rewary, although within three miles of the military cantonments, where three battalions of infantry were usually stationed; but the plunderers being all mounted, infantry, however active, could not prevent their escape.

Owing to the physical nature of the Mewat country, jungly, hilly, and abounding with defiles and fastnesses, the extirpation of these was likely to be a work of great difficulty, if at all practicable. It became, therefore, extremely desirable to endeavour to eradicate the evil by measures of a conciliatory nature; for these people, although from time immemorial addicted to robbery and habits of plunder, were known to be generally faithful when relied on and trusted. During the power of the Delhi throne, and after its decline, the only measures adopted to curb the Mewaties, were the utmost severity, harshness, and cruelty. In order to distress them, they were prohibited from cultivating the vallies where alone they could procure food, and their implements of husbandry were seized and destroyed. They were also, when apprehended, subjected to the most cruel punishments, and frequently experienced the doom of being immured alive between four walls, a practice which prevailed greatly during the Gallo-Maharatta power; but with such little effect, that while these districts were under the charge of M. Perron, he maintained in them for five months of the year from two to five battalions of his troops, besides sebundies, a species of local militia. This system of terror, as might have been expected, wholly failed: for notwithstanding the impending tortures that threatened them, the Mewaty outrages continued to increase, and the peaceful part of the community were kept in a state of unceasing alarm and anxiety. In 1807 a correspondence was opened with some of their chiefs by Mr. Seton, then resident at Delhi, and some measures of a mild, conciliatory nature adopted towards the Mewaties, which, although they did not entirely extinguish, so much repressed their habits of rapine, that we now comparatively hear but little of them.

In 1808, a dispute arose between the Rajas of Bhurtpoor and Macherry relative to an embankment maintained in the country of the latter, which prevented the flowing of the Laswary river into the country of the former, and consequently impeded the cultivation of certain lands belonging to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, which depended on that source for irrigation. On this occasion, the British government, as the friend of both parties, interfered, and required the Macherry Raja to open the embankment, in conformity with his engagement in 1805.

In 1811, the reigning Raja of Macherry was afflicted with a mental derangement, which after some time subsided, but was after a short period succeeded by a most unfortunate disposition to persecute his Mahomedan subjects, manifested by the most wanton acts of cruelty and outrage. The resident at Delhi, on hearing of these proceedings, adverting to the political relations subsisting between the Raja and the British government, thought it his duty to address several letters of expostulation on the subject to the Raja; but these not having the desired effect, Lord Minto, then governor-general, was obliged to interfere. Confidential persons (natives) were in consequence despatched

to Alvar, to ascertain the real condition of the Raja's mind, which was apprehended to be still not quite free from insanity. From their researches it appeared that certain Mahomedan devotees had been mutilated by the Raja's order, and that several tombs and places of worship had been destroyed, which act this chief attempted to justify by recriminating on the Mahomedans, that they had destroyed Hindoo images and temples. After mutilating these devotees, the Raja was siezed with a desire, no less savage than curious, of sending their noses and ears to Ahmed Buksh Khan, the chief of Ferozepoor, a most meritorious partizan of the British government: who on receipt of the pot containing the fragments, very properly forwarded it to the British resident at Delhi. Besides this notable exploit, having demolished a number of the most revered Mahomedan tombs, he loaded a multitude of asses and bullocks with the bones and ashes, had them transported out of his country, and ordered the sacred stones of the mosques near Alvar to be smeared with oil and sindhoor.

The British interposition on this occasion was exerted in so judicious a manner, that the Raja was induced to revert to the unqualified toleration existing in his country before the perpetration of the late acts of violence. It was, however, determined that the Raja's general conduct should be observed, as it concerned the general interests of humanity, as well as the credit of the British government, to prevent the repetition of such barbarities, which were calculated to excite a spirit of sanguinary animosity between the Mahomedans and Hindoos, and create disturbances of all others the most liable to contagion, and in their result the most difficult to quell. The interference on this occasion was authorized, both by the great extent of country that had been bestowed on the Macherry Raja by the British government, and by the continuance of its powerful protection, which had preserved his dominions from the dreadful evils that had befallen the neighbouring principalities of Jeypoor and Joudpoor. As illustrative of native politics it may be mentioned, that along with the confidential agents, it was necessary to send an emissary well acquainted with the Raja's person, as otherwise his ministers, with the view of concealing his derangement, might have recourse to the artifice of substituting some other individual, not unlike him in stature and general appearance, the success of which would be favoured by the darkness of the apartment.

The above acts of religious frenzy were not the only measures which brought the intellectual restoration of the Raja under suspicion; for towards the end of the same year, he had the gratuitous folly to become security to the Patan chief, Mahomed Shah Khan, on the part of Khooshaly Ram (formerly prime minister to the Raja of Jeypoor) for the payment of one and a half lacks of rupees per month, on account of a body of troops, to be furnished by the former to the latter for the service of the Jeypoor state, until the expelled minister (Khooshaly Ram) should be again placed at the head of affairs. This transaction was totally incompatible with the spirit of the relations subsisting between the British government and the state of Macherry, by the conditions of which the British government, having guaranteed the integrity of the Macherry dominions, the latter was placed in a state of dependence, and virtually precluded from interfering in the concerns of other chiefs and states, unless with the consent of the protecting power. For it appeared evident, that if the Raja were at liberty to contract engagements with foreign powers, or concern himself in their disputes and intrigues, the British government might be involved in serious political altercations, and eventually placed in a hostile attitude by the uncontrolled acts of the Raja. Situated as the parties were, the duty of protection necessarily implied a right of control over all proceedings of the

protected party which might have a tendency to compel the active exercise of that duty; and it was wholly inconsistent with the existing political relations, that a dependent state should be at liberty to form engagements with other powers, and to transfer the guarantee of the protecting power to concerns in which it had not participated.

By this act of the Raja, he pledged the security of the British government to the agreement between Khooshaly Ram and Mahomed Shah Khan, thereby rendering it an instrument of public evil, and of injustice to a friendly state, or forced it to engage in a cause of doubtful equity and unprofitable exertion, since in the event of the Raja's disinclination or inability to fulfil the obligations he had entered into (a circumstance not less probable than the failure of Khooshaly Ram in the performance of his engagement), the Patan chief would naturally be disposed to enforce the satisfaction of his claim. In this event the interference of the British government would become necessary, either to compel the payment of the money, or to protect the Raja against the arms of the claimant, and it would thus have been compelled, through the folly of the Raja, either to contribute to the support of a military Patan adventurer, aiming at the subjugation of a friendly state, or to employ its forces in a cause of dubious justice, where its interests were in no manner concerned.

This preposterous engagement, as might have been foreseen, was subsequently broken, and the agent of Mahomed Shah Khan, residing at Delhi, appealed to the resident for the recovery of the sum due to his master for the time that had elapsed; but the application was immediately rejected, and the chief informed, that the original engagement was altogether incompatible with the political relations subsisting between the Macherry Raja and the British government. With the view also of preventing in future a similar misconception of his duties, and to render more clear the treaty of 1803, a positive engagement was procured from the Raja, in 1812, binding himself not to enter into negociations, or conclude arrangements of any kind with foreign powers, without the knowledge and consent of the British government previously obtained. In times still more recent, the Raja, finding himself in the vicinity of the Jeypoor state, which was torn by civil faction and external warfare, endeavoured to avail himself of its misfortunes, and to aggrandize himself at its expense. He in consequence seized on some forts and villages; but the British government interfered, and obliged the intruder to restore what he had taken; and symptoms of hesitation appearing, he was fined for delaying instant obdience to the order.—(*Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, Rennell, &c.*)

ALVAR *(Alor)*.—A large town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the Macherry Raja's dominions; lat. 27° 44′ N., lon. 76° 32′ E., seventy-five miles S.S.W. from Delhi.

This place is situated at the base of a steep hill, and is strongly fortified, and on the summit of the hill, about 1,200 feet high, is a fortress which contains several tanks. To the south of the town there is a small shallow jeel. The Macherry Raja generally resides here, but his family at Rajghur, a strong-hold situated at the re-entering angle of some mountains, the top of which is also fortified. The adjacent hills and peaks do not exceed 1,000 feet in height.—(*Lieut. White, James Fraser, &c.*)

ALVARCOIL.—A town in the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, sixty-nine miles N.E. from Cape Comorin, lat. 8° 51′ N., lon. 78° 14′ E.

AMAIN.—A town in the Agra province south of the Chumbul, forty-one miles E. from Gualior; lat. 26° 20′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

AMANAPOOR.—A considerable military station in the island of Ceylon, twelve miles travelling distance from

Candy; lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 80° 45′ E. The fort here stands on the top of a precipitous hill 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and at its base are the cantonments, barracks, village, and bazar.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Amarapura *(the city of immortals)*, a city of India beyond the Ganges, and during the reign of Minderajee Praw the capital of the Birman empire; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 96° 7′ E. It stands on the banks of a deep and extensive lake, about seven miles long by one and a half broad; when filled by the periodical rains, the lake on one side, and the river on the other, form a dry peninsula, on which the city is placed. On entering the lake when the floods are at the highest, the number and variety of the boats, the great expanse of water, with the lofty surrounding hills, present an extraordinary sight to a stranger.

The fort of Amarapura is an exact square. There are four principal gates, one in each face; and there is also a smaller gate on each side of the great gate, equidistant between it and the angle of the fort, comprising twelve gates in all. At each angle of the fort there is a large quadrangular bastion, which projects considerably; there are also eleven smaller bastions on each side, including those over the gateway. Between each of these bastions is a curtain, extending 200 yards in length; from which calculation it results that a side of the fort occupies 2,400 yards. The ditch of the fort is wide, and faced with brick; the passage across is over a causeway, formed by a mound of earth, and defended by retrenchments. The rampart, faced by a wall of brick, is about twenty feet high, exclusive of the parapet, which has embrasures for cannon and apertures for muskets; the body of the ramparts is composed of earth, sustained within and externally by strong walls. Small demi-bastions project at regular distances; the gates are massive, and guarded by cannon. This fortress, considered as an eastern fortification, is respectable, but insufficient to resist the approaches of an enemy skilled in artillery tactics. From the height and solidity of the wall the Burmese consider it impregnable, although a battery of half a dozen well-served cannon would breach it in a few hours. The southern face of the fort is washed, during the rainy season, by the waters of the lake, and the houses of the city extend along the bank as far as the extreme point of land.

In Amarapura there are but few houses of brick and mortar, and these belong to members of the royal family. The dwellings of the chief persons are surrounded by a wooden enclosure, and all houses whatever are covered with tiles, and have in the ridge of the roof earthen pots filled with water, in readiness to be broken should fire occur. The splendour of the religious buildings is very striking, owing to the unbounded expenditure of gilding which is applied to the outside of the roofs as well as within, and must absorb much bullion. The gold leaf used is exceedingly pure, and bears exposure to the air for a long time without suffering injury. These edifices being generally composed of wood and other perishable materials, their existence is not of long duration. Contiguous to the fort is a small street, formerly entirely occupied by shops of silversmiths, who exposed their ware in the open balcony, and displayed a great variety of Birman utensils; but when visited by Captain Canning, in 1810, the greater part of these shops had disappeared, and on the 28th March of that year the entire city and fort, including all the palaces and about 20,000 houses, were destroyed by fire. The pudigaut or royal library is situated in the north-west angle of the fort, in the centre of a court paved with broad flags. The books are kept in wooden chests curiously ornamented, about 100 in number, and well filled. The greater part concern divinity; but history, music, medicine, painting, romance, and mythological fable have also their separate volumes. Across the lake

there are extensive fields of wheat, which grain in 1795 was sold in the city at the rate of one tical (2s. 6d.) for fifty-six pounds weight, and equal in quality to the finest in England.

Amarapura is subdivided into four distinct subordinate jurisdictions, in each of which a Maywoon presides. This officer, who in the provinces is a viceroy, in the capital performs the functions of a mayor, and holds a civil and criminal court of justice. In capital cases, he transmits the evidence with his opinion in writing to the lotoo, or grand chamber of consultation, where the council of state assembles. There are regularly established lawyers, who conduct causes and plead before the lotoo, for which their usual fee is sixteen shillings.

This city was founded by the Burmese monarch Mindarajee Praw so recently as 1783, about six miles east of Ava, the ancient capital; but was latterly abandoned by him through some unaccountable caprice, for some sterile sand-banks seven miles further up the stream of the Irawady. Buildings in this country are wholly composed of wood and bamboos, and the river presenting convenient water carriage, a capital is soon created, and increases with incredible rapidity. About A.D. 1800, its population was estimated by Captain Cox at 175,000, and the houses from 20,000 to 25,000; but the seat of government having been transferred back to Ava in 1819, by the present king, its population and importance must have diminished in proportion. Indeed the embassy in 1827 did not estimate its inhabitants at more than 30,000 persons.

Every facility being supposed, a communication may be held between the British frontier and the capital of Ava in twelve or fourteen days, *viz.* to Shembeghewn, two days; thence to Arracan, eight days; total twelve days. There is another road from Arracan to the Ava territories, which branches off at Padang, a town situated on the Irawady about ten days' journey above Rangoon.—(*Symes, Cox, Canning, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Amaravàti *(or Caroor river).*—A small river that flows past the town and fortress of Caroor in the Coimbatoor province, and after a short course joins the Cavery about ten miles below Caroor. Amaravati is also the name of many other rivers throughout Hindostan.

Ambaghaut.—A pass from the Concan province, on the west coast up the Western Ghauts, or chain of mountains, to the interior; lat. 17° 1′ N., lon. 73° 56′ E.

Ambaghur.—A fort in the province of Gundwana, situated on a hill, at the base of which is the town, and surrounded by jungle to a considerable distance; but on the south and east sides, in its immediate vicinity, there is a cultivated valley half a mile broad. It was captured without bloodshed in 1818.

The Golur and Holur tribes are numerous in the districts east of Nagpoor, but have their abodes mostly in the Puttar, a stony portion of Ambaghur, and in the jungles of Rampyle and Sahangurry. They are a thievish plundering tribe, but perfectly under the control of their naiks or chiefs, and are never troublesome when the latter are conciliated. They speak the Canarese language, but have no tradition respecting their original expatriation.—(*Jenkins, Blacker, &c.*)

Ambahlah *(Ambalaya).*—The capital of a small Seik state in the province of Delhi, about 115 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi, lat. 30° 19′ N., lon. 76° 44′ E.

Amber *(or Ambheer).*—The ancient capital of the Jeypoor territories, until Mirza Raja Jeysingh, in the reign of Aurengzebe, built the city of Jeypoor, since which period the principality takes that name also. Lat. 26° 57′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E., five miles N. by E. from Jeypoor.

The site of this place is singularly romantic, for it stands on the brink of a small lake, surrounded on all sides by steep mountains. The palace of the Rajahs is still in good preservation, and contains some noble halls,

built on the very face of the precipice immediately overhanging the lake. The interior of the old palace contains one very noble hall of audience, a small garden with fountains, and a long succession of passages, cloisters, alcoves, and small intricate apartments, many of them extremely beautiful, and enjoying from the windows, balconies, and terraces, a most striking prospect. The carving in stone and marble, the inlaid flowers and ornaments, in some of these apartments are equal to those of Delhi and Agra, and only surpassed by the beauties of the Tauje Mahal. A great use has been made of stained glass, which from the inaccessible height of the windows has remained in good preservation. Higher up is the castle with high towers, and battlements, with a few ornamented windows, many narrow loop-holes, and one tall minaret rising above the whole. The interior is not shewn to Europeans, it having formerly been the depôt for the public treasure, and is still occasionally used as a state prison.

It is approached by a steep winding ascent cut in the rock, and passing under three successive gateways. The heights above are crowned with towers and battlements; and the royal gardens occupy a small island in the lake and part of the eastern bank. The rest of the narrow space between the eastern margin of the lake is crowded with buildings of the ancient city. The interior is now ruinous and nearly depopulated; but its lofty picturesque pagodas, with porticoes guarded by marble elephants, its great bowlee, its arches and pavilions, still preserve the recollection of its former grandeur. There are two Jain temples here, one apparently quite new. The road from Jeypoor to Ambher, until the foot of the mountain that separates the two vallies is reached, presents an almost uninterrupted succession of villas, gardens, tanks, Hindoo monuments, and other religious edifices.—(*Fullarton, Franklin, Hunter, &c.*)

Ambloo.—A small island of about fifteen miles circumference in the Eastern seas, situated at the south-eastern extremity of Booro Isle, lat. 3° 55′ S., lon. 127° E. This island is but thinly inhabited, having been much infested by the depredations of the mop-headed Papuas from New Guinea, who plundered it in the year 1765, and carried off many of its natives. Beautiful shells are found on the shores of Ambloo.—(*Stavorinus, Bougainville, &c.*)

Ambong.—A large and commodious harbour on the north-west coast of Borneo, having great depth of water, with a button-like island in the centre. Ships keeping this island on the right hand side, will come into a fine harbour on the south side, close to some salt-houses. Lat. 6° 14′ N., lon. 116° 25′ E.

Amboor.—A town in the Carnatic province bordering on the Balaghaut, 108 miles W.S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 49′ N., lon. 78° 46′ E. The Amboor division is comprised within a range of hills of moderate height. The river Palaur, declining from its apparent southerly direction, enters this tract about three miles from the eastward, and washes the Amboor pettah, distant three miles to the southward of the fort. The skirts of the hills are covered with palmyra and date trees, from the produce of which a considerable quantity of coarse sugar is made. The territory is fertilized by numerous rills of water, conducted from the river along the margin of the heights, as a supply to the rice fields, the tobacco, cocoa-nut, and mangoe plantations. In the hot weather in the low country the thermometer under the cover of a tent rises to 100° Fahrenheit, and exposed to the rays of the sun, to 120°.

The village of Amboor is neat and regularly built; its inhabitants are very industrious, and make a considerable quantity of castor-oil, which they export. On the left side of it is a lofty isolated mountain, on which formerly stood a fort almost impregnable by nature. The upper works have been destroyed since it came

into the possession of the British, and the lower is a place of confinement for malefactors. The plain on the top is of sufficient extent to have rendered its cultivation an object of importance, and on it are two tanks near to where the barracks formerly stood. The view from hence is noble and extensive, and the air cool in comparison with that below. This district suffered greatly from Hyder's different invasions of what we call the Carnatic, from which it has not yet altogether recovered. Near Amboor the Barramahal ends, and the Arcot territories commence. — (*Martine, Salt, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

AMBORA.—A town in the province of Gundwana, forty-one miles E. by S. from the city of Nagpoor; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 79° 44′ E.

AMBOYNA (*Ambun*).—An island in the eastern seas lying off the S.W. coast of the island of Ceram, lat. 3° 40′ N., lon. 128° 15′ E. In length it may be estimated at thirty-two miles, by ten the average breadth. The name is a Malay word signifying dew. On the S.W. Amboyna is indented by a deep bay, by which it is divided into two limbs or peninsulas, connected together by a very narrow isthmus. Both of these are mountainous, and almost overgrown with trees and underwood, between which at intervals some clove trees are cultivated. The soil is mostly a reddish clay; but in the vallies where there are not any rocks it is darker coloured, and mixed with sand. Many of the hills yield sulphur, with which mineral their surface is encrusted.

This island produces all the common tropical fruits and vegetables, and likewise the cajeput tree, from which the hot and strong oil called cajeput oil is distilled. The clove-bark tree or *laurus sassafras*, and the teak tree, are also found here, but the latter in small quantities, building timber being mostly imported from Java. Although the quantity is not great, the variety of woods is infinite. Valentyn enumerates different species of the ebony tree, the iron tree, the casuarina, the wild clove, the samarnatree (a bastard sort of teak), and the nani tree, which the Chinese use for anchors and rudders. He also mentions that, in 1682, Rumphius (the author of the Hortus Amboinensis) had a cabinet inlaid with 400 choice and handsome woods, all the produce of the island, which he presented to Cosmo, the third Duke of Tuscany.

The clove tree resembles a large pear tree from twenty to forty feet high. At nine years of age it yields cloves, and continues to bear to about 100 years, October and November being the usual period of the clove crop, when from two to three pounds are generally procured from each tree. Indigo of a superior quality is produced in Amboyna, but not in large quantities. The sago tree is found in abundance, and is a principal article of food. An ordinary tree, from its twelfth to its twentieth year, when cut down will yield 350 pounds of sago. They are seven years arriving at full growth, and last about thirty. The woods here swarm with deer and wild hogs, the flesh of which is used by the natives, fresh, salted, and dried. The domestic animals are buffaloes, cows, horses, sheep, goats, and swine. The last only are aboriginal, the others having been imported by the Portuguese and Dutch from Java, Celebes, and the south-western isles. There are no beasts of prey on the island, but plenty of snakes.

The monsoons are exactly the contrary here to what they are along the islands of Java, Borneo, Bali, Lumbhook, and Sumbhava. When at these the fine season prevails, it is the reverse at Amboyna, Ceram, Banda, the east coast of Celebes, and the adjacent seas. The difference appears to commence to the eastward of the straits of Salayer, which are about lon. 120° 30′ E. The currents are not regular at Amboyna, neither has the moon any constant or equal influence on the tides, high and low water sometimes occurring once, sometimes twice in twenty-four hours, the rise being from six to nine feet.

Fort Victoria is situated on the S.E. side of the island, and is an irregular hexagon, with a ditch and covered way on the land side, and a horn-work towards the sea; but it is commanded by two heights within 700 and 1,200 yards distance, the difficulty of anchoring in the bay constituting the chief strength of the island. The town of Amboyna is clean, neatly and regularly built, and well supplied with water. The west end is inhabited by Chinese, and the south end by Europeans, near to which is the tomb of Rumphius. On account of the frequency of earthquakes, the houses seldom exceed one story in height. The inhabitants are the Horaforas or aborigines, the Amboynese, Europeans, and Chinese; but of the first there are now very few remaining. The Amboynese were converted to the Mahomedan faith about A.D. 1515; the Portuguese subsequently converted a number of them to the Roman Catholic religion, and the Dutch to the Calvanistic, but the greater proportion still remain Mahomedans. The Christians, however, evidently excel the other sects of Amboynese, both as to morals and intelligence, and notwithstanding all the oppression they have endured, are a peaceful inoffensive race. In the Dutch armies they rank above their other Asiatic troops, and receive pay and equipments in proportion. The principal Amboynese Christians still bear Portuguese names; but their number is not great. The Chinese are not so numerous in proportion as on the other islands, yet they are the only strangers permitted to settle here by the Dutch. They keep shops, sell provisions, and intermarry with each other. One junk of 500 tons arrives from China annually.

Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese in A.D. 1515, but was not taken possession of until 1564, and was conquered from them by the Dutch about A.D. 1607. In 1546, when St. Francis Xavier was at Amboyna, he observed the inhabitants then beginning to learn to write from the Arabians. At present they speak the Malay language. In 1622, the famous or rather infamous Amboyna massacre took place; in 1796 it was captured by the British, when it was found to contain 45,252 inhabitants, of which number 17,813 were Protestants; the rest Mahommedans, except the Chinese and slaves. It was restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801, recaptured in 1810, and again finally restored after the peace of Paris in 1814.—(*Stavorinus and Notes, 2 Reg., Bruce, Marsden, Crawfurd, &c.*)

AMEERGHUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, twenty-two miles N.W. from Pattialah; lat. 30° 28′ N., lon. 76° 10′E.

AMEER KHAN.—See SERONGE.

AMERKOTE. (*Amara-cata, the fort of the immortals.*)—A town on the confines of Sinde, about eighty-five miles E. of the Indus, and of Hyderabad the capital of that province, lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 69° 49′ E. This place was formerly the capital of an independent principality named Dhat, held by the Jada Rajpoots, but being situated on the confines of Joudpoor and Sinde, soon became an object of contention between the two states. In 1813 it had been recently captured by the Ameers. The surrounding country is arid, sterile, and unproductive, taxes on merchandize, and extortions from travellers, being the only sources of revenue. The Emperor Humayoon, after his expulsion from Hindostan by Shere Shah the Afghan, in his extreme distress sought refuge in the desert with the Rajah of Amerkote; and here the Emperor Acber was born, A.D. 1541.—(*Macmurdo, Pottinger, MSS., &c.*)

AMHERST.—The town of Martaban being restored to the Burmese, under the provisions of the treaty of 1826, it became expedient to possess a station on the south bank of the Saluen river, as a military post, commercial establishment, and asylum to the numerous refugees preparing

to migrate from the Burmese dominions. A recess north of Cape Kyar Kami was selected for this purpose, the British flag hoisted on the 5th April 1826, and the spot (then covered with jungle and fruit trees) having no native name, was called Amherst. Lat. 16° 5′ N., lon. 97° 25′ E.

This place stands in the north-east angle of the gulf of Martaban, twenty-eight miles below the town of that name, on a triangular peninsula, containing an area of about four square miles, the apex of the promontory (commanding both town and harbour) from twenty-five to thirty feet high, the rest about ten feet above high-water mark spring tides, except a narrow mangrove belt, intended for the native quarter. Off Amherst promontory, on a detached rock, is the Buddhist temple of Kyarkami. The apex and the most elevated portion are reserved for public purposes, such as fortifications, the church, governor's house, court of justice, &c.; the lowest grounds are assigned to the natives, being most congenial to their habits; the higher grounds to the European and Chinese quarters, to be built of durable materials. The military cantonments are fixed on a spot about one mile and a half from the town, dry, level, and elevated.

Up to the 7th May 1826, of 431 lots marked out, 217 had been given away to Europeans, Chinese, Portuguese, and others, besides lands assigned, to Burmese and Peguers; temporary cantonments had also then been constructed, the streets designated by English names, such as Bayley Street, Harington Street, &c. Estimating the native town at only 2,000 houses, the quit rents within a year would amount to 7,322 Madras rupees, annually increasing, a great accession of inhabitants being expected, so that its own resources would in a few years defray the civil and military disbursements. From its frontier situation Amherst must become the chief station of the south-eastern Burmese conquered provinces. In January 1827 it contained 1,600 inhabitants.

The harbour is spacious and secure, with three fathoms at low water neap tides, and ships may lie within 100 yards of the shore; the steam boat lay within fifty. Rise and fall of the tide about nineteen feet; flow of the tide about six miles an hour, but without any bore, and on the whole well adapted for wet docks. Owing to its geographical position, the harbour is still as a lake for two hours before and two after high water, permitting an easy communication by boats with the shore. A remarkably noble and beautiful plant, named Amherstia, after Lady Amherst, has recently been discovered in this neighbourhood. Only two trees of it are known to exist, and these were found in the garden of a Buddhist monastery on the banks of the Saluen river. A species of oak also grows to a great size in the vicinity of this town, and extensive forests of teak timber further inland up the river Attran. Good water is found every where within six feet of the surface.

As a depôt from which the Burmese, Chinese, Shans, and other ultra-Gangetic nations may be supplied with the commodities of Britain and Hindostan, Amherst promises to be a settlement of the first importance. The short run between it and Rangoon well suit the small coasting trading boats, and there is said to be a safe and practicable route to the interior of Ava and the Shan country, through the town and province of Tongho. From Amherst opium may be introduced to the very centre of Ava, Siam, Laos, and through the latter into China. Prior to 1827, several chests had been imported and sold.—(*Crawfurd, Lieut. Low, Capt. Studdert, &c.*)

Amherst Harbour.—A harbour thus named in the province of Arracan, situated between the island of Ramree, towards the southern extremity, and the main-land; lat. 18° 47′ N. lon. 93° 50′ E.

Amjerah *(or Amjherva).*—A small

town in Malwa, belonging to Sindia, and the head of a district containing 175 villages. Lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E., fifty-six miles S.W. from Oojein, and twelve W. of Dhar. It stands in an extensive valley, which expands towards the north, and is 1890 feet above the level of the sea. In 1820 it contained 500 houses, with good bazars plentifully supplied. Amjerah is tributary to Sindia, to whom the chief (a Rhatore Rajpoot) pays 35,000 rupees per annum; his country, however, under proper management, is capable of yielding three times that amount. In 1824 the Amjerah gross revenues were expected to reach one lack of rupees. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Ammalapoor.—A town in the Northern Circars, situated on a branch of the Godavery, near its junction with the Bay of Bengal, fifty-three miles N.E. from Masulipatam; lat. 16° 25′ N., lon. 81° 58′ E. About twelve miles E. of this place is a village named Sura-yana-yunam, and close to it a shallow lake, at the bottom of which sulphur is found deposited. The country is flat in its vicinity, there being no hill nearer than fifty miles, and stones are almost as rare.—(*Heyne, &c.*)

Amran.—A town and fortress, with a small district adjacent, situated in the Guzerat peninsula, twenty-two miles S.W. from Mallia, lat. 22° 41′ N., lon. 72° 43′ E. Near to one of the adjacent villages is a monument erected to commemorate a traga, committed in 1807, by a Rajghur Brahmin. To deter his superior, Hirjee Khowas, from depriving him of some land in the vicinity, he led his mother to the gate of Amran, and there cut off her head, which had the desired effect. Instances of this sort are very frequent in Guzerat, and, on most occasions the victim, whether male or female, not only consents to, but glories in the death inflicted. The person who is in many cases the innocent cause of the catastrophe, is considered by the Brahminical code as damned for ever; while the wretch who for his own profit perpetrates the murder, is not only held innocent by his fellow citizens, but suffers no pang either of heart or conscience. —(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Amrawutty (*Amaravati*). — A large and populous town in the province of Berar, thirty-four miles S.E. from Ellichpoor, lat. 20° 54′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E. A considerable quantity of cotton, of a good length and staple, was formerly transported from hence to Bengal by land carriage, being a distance of more than 500 miles; and it still carries on a general inland traffic of considerable extent.

Amravutty (*Amaravati*). — A large town in the northern Circars, situated in a plain extending along the south bank of the Krishna, twenty miles N.N.W. from Guntoor, and twelve miles in a direct line S.W. from the fortress of Condapilly. It was built by the late Venkatady Naik in 1796, and for a native town displays considerable neatness and regularity. Five hundred yards west from Amravutty are the ruins of the ancient town of Durnacotta, which is said to have once been the capital of this quarter of Hindostan. The principal curiosities here are the Amreshwar pagoda, one of the chief Siva temples in Telingana, and the great mound of Depaulling, from whence coins, inscriptions, and sculptures are still procured.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

Amrooah.—A considerable town in the province of Delhi, a few miles S.W. from Moradabad, with a neat mosque and extensive garden, and surrounded by large plantations of sugar and cotton. The generality of the surrounding country, however, is poor, sterile, and thinly inhabited, and with a very great extent of ground totally waste.

Amritsir (*Amrita Saras, the fountain of nectar*).—The capital of the Seik nation, and holy place of their religion, situated in lat. 31° 33′ N.,

long. 74° 48′ E., forty-four miles E. from the city of Lahore. This is an open town, about eight miles in circumference. The streets are narrow; the houses in general good, being lofty and built of burnt bricks, but the apartments are confined. It is still the grand emporium of trade for the shawls and saffron of Cashmere, and various other commodities from the Deccan and eastern part of India, and an excise is levied by the Rajah on all the merchandize sold in the town according to its value. The manufactures of the place are only a few course cloths and inferior silks; but owing to its being the resort of many rich merchants, and the residence of bankers, Amritsir is a station of considerable opulence. Runjeet Singh has built a new fort, named Runjeetghur, after himself, and he has also brought a narrow canal from the Ravey, a distance of thirty-four miles.

Amritsir, or the pool of immortality, is a basin of about 135 paces square, built of bricks, in the centre of which stands a temple dedicated to Gooroo Govind Singh. In this sacred place is lodged, under a silken canopy, the book of laws written by that Gooroo; and from 500 to 600 akalies, or priests, who belong to the temple and are supported by contributions, perform its functions. When Ahmed Shah Abdalli conquered Lahore, he destroyed this temple twice, and killed cows, and threw them into the water, in order to defile it effectually. Runjeet Singh has a mint here, at which coins of different value are struck in honour of Baba Nanak Shah, the most eminent Seik saint. Good camels, and occasionally horses, are to be purchased here; the first for fifty rupees each. These valuable, patient, and ill-used animals are brought down loaded with rock salt from a mine about eighty miles north of Lahore. Strings of 600 are seen on the road, with a large lump resembling a block of unwrought marble slung on each side.

* Some Seik authorities ascribe the foundation of Amritsir to Gooroo Ramdas (who died A.D. 1581), which is not correct, as it was a very ancient town, known formerly by the name of Chak. Gooroo Ramdas added much to its population, and built the famous tank or reservoir named Amritsir, which, in the course of time, gave its name to the town, it having at one time been also named Ramdaspoor.—(*Malcolm, 11th Register, &c.*)

Amsterdam.—A small island lying off the north-western extremity of Ceylon, and subordinate to the district of Jaffnapatam, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It is five miles in length by two in breadth, and affords excellent pasturage for rearing horses and cattle.—(*Percival, &c.*)

Anaje.—A town in the Mysore territories, having a small district annexed, twenty-seven miles N.W. from Chittadroog; lat. 14° 27′ N., lon. 76° 13′ E.

Anak Sunjei.—A district in the island of Sumatra, extending along the sea-coast on the S.W. side, from the Manjuta river to that of Arei. The chief bears the title of sultan, and his capital, if such a place deserves the appellation, is named Mocomoco. Although the government is Malayan, yet the ministers of the sultan are named Mantri (a title borrowed from the Hindoos), and the greater proportion of the inhabitants consist of aborigines.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

Analaboo.—The name of a considerable pepper district in Sumatra.

Anam.—A town in the Oude territories, thirty-four miles S.W. from Lucknow, lat. 26° 34′ N., lon. 80° 22′ E.

Anambas (north, middle, and south).—Three clusters of very small islands in the China Sea, situated between lat. 2° 20′ and 3° 30′ N., and about lon. 130° 30′ E. The largest may be estimated at twenty

miles in circumference, but a great majority are mere rocky islets.

ANAPECTOMIOU HILLS. See ARRACAN.

ANDAMANS.—The Andaman Islands are a continuation of the Archipelago in the Bay of Bengal, which extends from Cape Negrais to Acheen head, stretching from 10° 32′ N., to 13° 40′ N. What has been considered as the great Andaman is the most northerly, and about 140 miles in length by twenty in breadth. This island, however, is separated by two very narrow straits, which have a clear passage into the Bay of Bengal, and, in reality, divides it into three islands. The little Andaman is the most southerly, and lies within thirty leagues of the Carnicobar Isles. Its length is about twenty-eight miles, by seventeen in breadth; but it does not afford any harbour, although tolerable anchorage may be found near its shores. Situated in the full sweep of the S.W. monsoon, and the clouds being obstructed by high mountains, these islands for eight months of the year are washed by incessant torrents; but, upon the whole, the climate is rather milder than in Bengal. The tides are regular, the floods setting in from the west, and rising eight feet at the springs. The variation of the needle 2° 30′ easterly.

In the centre of the large Andaman is a lofty mountain, named Saddle Peak, about 2,400 feet high. There are no rivers of any considerable size. The most common trees are the poon, dammer, and oil-trees; red-wood, ebony, the cotton and almond trees; soondry, chingry, and beady; the Alexandrian laurel, the poplar, a tree resembling satin-wood; bamboos, cutch, the melon, aloes, ground rattans, and a variety of shrubs. Many of the trees afford timber and planks fit for the construction of ships, and others might answer for masts.

The birds seen in the woods are pigeons, crows, parroquets, kings-fishers, curlews, fishing-hawks, and fowls. There are a great variety of fish, such as mullet, soles, pomfrets, rock-fish, skate, gurnas, sardinas, roe-balls, sable, shad, aloose, cockup, grobers, seerfish, prawns, shrimps, crayfish, a species of whale, and sharks of an enormous size. During the prevalence of the north-east monsoon fish are caught in great abundance, but in the tempestuous season they are procured with difficulty. There are many sorts of shell-fish, and in some places oysters of an excellent quality. A few diminutive swine are found on the skirts of the forest; but these are very scarce, and probably the progeny of a stock left by former navigators. Although the ordinary food of the Andamaners be fish, they eat likewise lizards, snakes, guanas, and rats. Within the caverns and recesses are found the edible bird-nests, so highly prized by the Chinese; and the shores abound with a variety of beautiful shells, gorgonias, madrepores, murex, and cowries.

The vegetable productions are very few, the fruit of the mangrove being the principal. As the natives possess no pot or vessel that can resist the action of fire, they cannot derive much advantage from such esculents as the forest may contain; and, unhappily for the Andamaners, the cocoa-nut, which flourishes so well at the Nicobar Islands (almost in sight), has never planted itself on their territory.

The population of the great Andaman and all its dependencies does not exceed 2,000 or 2,500 persons, dispersed in small societies along the coast, or on the lesser islands within the harbour, never penetrating deeper into the interior than the skirts of the forest; their sole occupation seems to be that of climbing rocks, or roving along the margin of the sea, in quest of a precarious meal, which during the tempestuous season they often seek in vain.

It is an object of much curiosity to discover the origin of a race of people, so widely differing, not only from all the inhabitants of the neighbouring continent, but also from those of the

Nicobar Islands, which are so near; hitherto, however, the inquiries of travellers have produced no satisfactory conclusion. In stature they seldom exceed five feet; their limbs are disproportionately slender, their bellies protuberant, with high shoulders and large heads. In appearance they resemble a degenerate race of negroes, with woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips; their eyes are small and red; their skin of a deep sooty black, while their countenances exhibit the extreme of wretchedness, a horrid mixture of famine and ferocity; they go quite naked, and are insensible to any shame from exposure.

The few implements they use are of the rudest description. Their principal weapon is a bow, from four to five feet long; the string made of the fibres of a tree, or a slip of bamboo, with arrows of reed, headed with fish-bone, or wood, hardened in the fire. Besides this, they carry a spear of heavy wood, sharp-pointed, and a shield made of bark. They shoot and spear fish with great dexterity, and are said to use a small hand-net, made of the filaments of bark. Having kindled a fire, they throw the fish on the coals, and devour it half broiled.

Their habitations display little more ingenuity than the dens of wild beasts: four sticks forced into the ground, are bound at the top and fastened transversely to others, to which branches of trees are suspended; an opening just large enough to admit of entrance is left on one side, and their bed is composed of leaves. Being much incommoded by insects, their first occupation of a morning is to plaister their bodies all over with mud, which hardening in the sun, forms an impenetrable armour. Their woolly heads they paint with red ochre and water; and when thus completely dressed, a more hideous appearance is not to be found in the human form. Their salutation is performed by lifting one leg, and smacking with their hand on the lower part of the thigh.

Their canoes are hollowed out of the trunks of trees by fire and instruments of stone, having no iron in use among them, but such as they accidentally procure from Europeans, or from vessels wrecked on the coast. The men are cunning and revengeful, and have an inveterate hatred to strangers; they have never made any attempt to cultivate the land, but subsist on what they can pick up or kill; they appear to express an adoration to the sun and to imaginary beings, the genii of the woods, waters, and mountains. In storms they apprehend the influence of a malignant being, and deprecate his wrath by chaunting wild chorusses. Of a future state it is not known that they have any idea, which possibly arises from our imperfect means of discovering their opinions.

The Andamans, together with the Nicobar and lesser islands, were included by Ptolemy in the general appellation of Insulæ Bonæ Fortunæ, and supposed to be inhabited by a race of Anthropophagi, a description which the barbarity of the modern Andamaners perhaps justifies, as far as refers to them; for the inhabitants of the Nicobars are a very different race; they are also mentioned by Marco Polo in the thirteenth century. The language of the Andamaners has not been discovered to possess the slightest affinity with any spoken in India, or among the islands.

The first settlement of the English was made in the year 1791, near the southern extremity of the island, which was afterwards removed, in 1793, to Port Cornwallis. A more picturesque or romantic view can scarcely be imagined than that which Chatham Island and Cornwallis Island present. Being land-locked on all sides, nothing is to be seen but an extensive sheet of water, resembling a vast lake, interspersed with small islands, and surrounded by lofty mountains, covered with trees. The original object of the undertaking was to procure a commodious harbour on the east side of the Bay of Bengal, to receive and shelter

ships of war during the continuance of the north-east monsoon. It was also intended as a place of reception for convicts sentenced to transportation from Bengal; but the settlement proving extremely unhealthy, it was abandoned, and the convicts have since been sent to Prince of Wales' Island, and prior to its cession to Bencoolen.

In 1814 Port Cornwallis was visited by Capt. Canning on his way to Acheen, but all his endeavours to establish an intercourse with the natives proved ineffectual. Few vestiges then remained of the British settlement withdrawn in 1796. Recent fires indicated that the ruins of a brick house on Chatham Island afforded occasional shelter to some of the natives. Close to some muddy water of the worst quality they found the head and back-bone of a shark, the rest of which appeared to have been devoured the same day.

In 1819, two Andaman negroes, captured by a Burmese fishing-junk, were landed at Prince of Wales' Island. According to the Burmese account, they belonged to a party of Andamaners that attacked the Burmese, and wounded four of the crew with their arrows. In height they were about four feet six inches, and in weight about seventy-six pounds; their colour jet black, bodies tattooed, and appetites voracious. They appeared averse to speak, except when left entirely to themselves, when they made a cackling, like turkies.

In April 1824, the British armament, under Sir Archibald Campbell, destined against the Burmese, assembled at Port Cornwallis in the Great Andaman, where some of the ships remained about a month; but during their stay never could effect any communication with the few wretched beings who inhabit these sequestered regions. Savages in every sense of the word, they rejected all intercourse; and if met at any time accidentally on the margin of the dense jungle reaching down to the sea-beach, they immediately evinced hostile feelings, by discharging flights of arrows at the boats, and then penetrating the interior. On this occasion it was ascertained, that the skulls and bones with which their wigwams were adorned belonged to a species of small island hog, and not to the human species, as had been suspected. —(*Symes, Col. Colebrooke, Capt. Canning, &c.*)

ANDAMAN (the Little) ISLE. A flat island covered with high trees, lying due south of the Great Andaman, from which it is distant about forty miles. Lat. 10° 40′ N., long. 92° 30′ E. In length it may be estimated at twenty-eight miles by seventeen, the average breadth; but it does not possess any good harbour, although tolerable anchorage may be found near its shores. It was visited to procure water, in November 1825, by the Earl Kellie transport, on her passage to Rangoon, with troops, which were most ferociously received by the natives, who obstructed their watering, and fought two pitched battles, in which they lost many killed and wounded; they would listen to no parley or entreaty, or accept any presents, but discharged showers of arrows, which killed one, and wounded three of the soldiers; and to the very last they endeavoured to cut off the pioneers engaged in watering. One party of them were about sixty in number, wild-looking creatures, with frizzled hair, flat noses, small red eyes, and their skins besmeared with mud, and their faces painted with red ochre; they were all completely naked, except one stout man, about six feet high, who wore on his head a red cloth with white spots, and was probably their chief.

They appear, however, to have made further advances in civilization than their neighbours on the Great Andaman, as a hut was discovered on the edge of the jungle twenty feet high, of a conical shape, thatched to within one foot and a half of the ground with rattan leaves, with just room to crawl in underneath. The floor inside was strewed with leaves, and

there were several sleeping cots made of bamboo grating, raised on posts, while the walls were ornamented with rows of smoked skulls of a diminutive hog. From the roof, a piece of red and white checquered cloth, apparently of Madras manufacture, was suspended, and jack fruits and edible roots were discovered in small conical baskets; the drinking vessels seemed to be the nautilus shell. The weapons were a most formidable bow, about seven feet in length, stretched with the feet, and a hand-bow two feet long, both strung with the dark red fibres of a tree; the arrows were above three feet long, some with two, three, and four prongs, and so hard, that when discharged by the soldiers, they penetrated two inches into solid timber. No canoes or rafts were seen, and no idols of any description.

The forest into which our soldiers penetrated was gloomy and dismal; the trees of vast height, thickly interwoven with rattans and bushrope, and the air charged with pestilential vapour, from the putrid vegetation with which the swampy ground was covered: parroquets were skreeching over their heads, and poisonous snakes gliding among their feet. The ship's boats returned on board after this unpleasant expedition, laden with bows, arrows, specimens of shells, and ambergris; and during the night the savages were heard on the beach, shouting and yelling defiance. Indeed, during the whole adventure, they never evinced the slightest symptoms of fear, but were always most perversely the aggressors.—(*J. E. Alexander, &c.*)

ANDAPOORGHUR, a town in the province of Orissa, forty-eight miles west from Balasore; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 86° 5′ E.

ANDIA, a town in the province of Malwa, forty-five miles N.N.E. from Bhopaul. Lat. 23° 46′ N., long. 78° E.

ANGSTOO, a town in the Nepaulese dominions, supposed to be situated about forty miles north of Jemlah. Lat. 29° 47′ N., long. 81° 25′ E.

ANIMALAYA (*Ani Malaya, or the elephant hill*), a town in the Coimbatoor province, twenty-three miles S.E. from Palighautcherry. Lat. 10° 31′ N., lon. 77° 1′ E. This place is situated on the west side of the river Alima, and in A.D. 1800 contained 400 houses. It was then a common thoroughfare between Malabar and the southern part of the Carnatic, being situated opposite to the wide passage between the southern end of the ghauts of Carnata and the hills that run north from Cape Comorin. The forests here are extensive, and contain abundance of teak and other valuable timber, but unfortunately too remote from water carriage to permit its exportation.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

ANJAR.—A small district in the province of Cutch, ceded to the British government in 1816, and governed by a commissioner deputed from Bombay.

This is a very arid tract of country, water being very scarce, and in many parts the soil so loose and sandy as to be unfit for tanks. The expense of sinking wells differs according to the nature of the soil and the depth where springs are reached, and, generally speaking, twenty-three cubits must be perforated before water is found. There are some villages where it is necessary to penetrate much deeper, and others where the search is hopeless. Rutnal is one of the largest villages, and Rohur a seaport, yet both are destitute of water, In 1817, out of 201 wells used for irrigation, sixty-six paid no revenue to government, and were much the most productive and profitable. In fact, such is the scarcity of water in Cutch, that any person who sinks a well at his own expense, becomes entitled to the whole of the land it is capable of irrigating. In 1817, notwithstanding these obstacles, the tillage was on the increase, many applications having been made to Capt. McMurdo, the commissioner, by the peasantry for permission to extend the cultivation, and,

with a view to the further improvement of the district, the Bombay government ordered the construction of several tanks. At that date, owing to the prior anarchy, the commerce of Anjar was inconsiderable, but the state of tranquillity it has since enjoyed must have augmented its traffic, as well as its agricultural produce.—(*Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Anjar.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the side of a hill nearly ten miles from the gulf of Cutch. The bunder, or port, named Toonea, is fronted by a creek from the gulf; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 70° 11′ E. The fortifications of Anjar form a polygon, but are not strong, being only six feet in thickness and without a ditch. It surrendered to Colonel East in 1816, after a breach had been effected. During the great earthquake of 1819, the half of this town, situated on low rocky ridges, suffered comparatively nothing, while the other half was almost wholly overturned. About 3,000 houses were reported to have been destroyed or rendered uninhabitable, and 165 persons lost their lives. In 1820 the inhabitants were estimated at 10,000 persons.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Anjediva Isle (*Anjadwipa*).—A small island about one mile in circumference and two from the shore, fifty-four miles S. by E. from Goa; lat. 14° 44′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E. In 1662 Sir Abraham Shipman, when refused possession of Bombay by the Portuguese, landed on this island with his troops, amounting to 500 men, where they continued until 1665, having lost during the interval by sickness all but two officers, and 119 rank and file.—(*Bruce, &c.*)

Anjengo (*Anjutenga*).—A small sea-port town in the province of Travancore, seventy-eight miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin, lat. 8° 37′ N., lon. 76° 53′ E. A short distance from hence lies Attinga (named in the maps Attancal), the chief residence of the Tamburretties or princesses of Travancore. The interior of the country is inhabited by Hindoos, whereas on the sea-coast much the greater proportion of the people are Christians and Mahomedans. In 1684, the East-India Company received permission from the Queen of Attinga to fortify Anjengo and a small strip of land round it; but in 1813, on account of the useless expense, the factory was abolished, by which a saving of 23,000 rupees per annum was effected. The best coir cables on the Malabar coast are made here and at Cochin, of the fibres of the Lacadive cocoa-nut. The other exports are pepper, coarse piece-goods, coir, and some drugs; the imports are of very small amount.—(*Fra. Paolo, MS. Documents, Bruce, &c.*)

Anjenwell.—A town and fortress on the sea-coast of the Concan, 100 miles S. by E. from Bombay; lat. 17° 33′ N., lon. 73° 18′ E. It surrendered to a British detachment in 1818.

Anjerie.—A considerable village half way up the straits of Sunda, on the Java shore, where ships may be conveniently supplied with water and other refreshments, such as buffaloes, poultry, turtle, fruit, vegetables, &c.; lat. 6° 3′ S., lon. 105° 50′ E. Anjerie is situated in a bay formed by Fourth Point and the point of Marak Bay, and is the westernmost port on the island of Java. The village is large and populous, and has a good block-house with cannon for the garrison. Towards the interior the country rises gradually, and its fertility is such, that with an adequate population any quantity of vegetables and fruit might be produced. The shore, with the exception of a few fine bays, is rocky, chiefly of coral, and much indented. At this place Colonel Cathcart, who died on his way to China, as ambassador in 1785, is interred.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Ankapilly.—A town in the Northern Circars, twenty-four miles travelling distance W. by S. from Vizagapatam, lat. 17° 41′ N., lon. 83° 11′

E. This is a large place, nearly a mile in length and wide in proportion, with a good bazar, and thickly interspersed with trees.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ANKOSGERRY.—A town in the Mysore territories, forty miles S.E. from Bangalore, lat. 12° 39′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E.

ANNAGOONDY.—A small district in the Bejapoor province, south of the Krishna, extending along the north bank of the Toombudra river. The principal towns are Bijanagur (or Annagoondy) and the fortress of Kopaul. After the conquest of Bijanagur by the combined Mahomedan princes of the Deccan, in 1564, the nominal Rajas were allowed to retain Annagoondy and some other districts in jaghire for several generations. From them it passed to the Maharattas, to Hyder, Tippoo, the Mysore Dewan Purneah, the Nizam, and at last, in 1803, to the British, this nation acting in India as residuary legatee to all the others. The surface of this country is wild and hilly, interspersed with much wood, amongst which are to be seen groves of the wild date tree. For some miles round the city the soil is encumbered in all directions with vast piles of granitic rock. In 1820 the reigning Raja was a man of weak intellects, about eighty years of age, who continued to support an appearance of mock royalty, and to amuse himself with the expectation of recovering the ancient possessions of his family. His principal residence was at Camlapoor, from whence he sallied forth with a pack of 100 dogs, having still sufficient strength, notwithstanding his advanced age, to pursue the chace on foot.—See also BIJANAGUR, of which Annagoondy is a section.—(*Munro, Fullarton, &c.*)

ANNICUL.—A town in the Mysore territories, twenty miles S.S.E. from Bangalore; lat. 12° 40′ N., lon. 77° 45′ E.

ANOORADAPOOR.—This ancient capital of Ceylon is now a mean village in the midst of a desert. A large tank, numerous stone pillars, and two immense tumuli (probably of temples), are now the principal vestiges; but the spot is still considered sacred, and resorted to as a pilgrimage.—(*Davy, &c.*)

ANOPSHEHER (*Anapa sheher*).—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the west side of the Ganges, about sixty-eight miles E.S.E. from Delhi; lat 28° 23′ N., lon. 78° 8′ E. In A.D. 1800 Anopsheher was surrounded by a strong mud wall, in some parts from twenty to thirty feet thick, and although of no great extent, was thickly inhabited. The houses consisted of a mixture of brick and mud buildings.—(*Tennant, &c.*)

ANTERY (*Antari*).—A walled town of considerable size within the portion of the Agra province, tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the banks of the small river Dealoo, twelve miles south from Gualior. Lat. 26° 5′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E. The neighbouring hills are of quartzoze rock.—(*Hunter, &c.*)

ANTOORLEE.—A village on the Tuptee, in the province and district of Candeish, about ten miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. In 1820 it was surrounded by a mud wall with brick bastions, and was then divided between Sindia and the British government as successors to the Peshwa.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

AOR.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, lying off the east coast of Malacca; lat. 2° 25′ N., lon. 104° 35′ E. The surface is high, and covered with a close lofty wood. A small Malay village here supplies ships with cocoa-nuts and vegetables.—(*Johnson, Elmore, &c.*)

APAKOOKIT. — A town in the Malay peninsula, district of Queda, chiefly inhabited by Chulias, six miles S.E. from Allestar.

APPOLE.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 25° 9′ N., lon. 88° 59′ E.

ARABS. — See CANDEISH PROVINCE.

ARACOTE. — In the province of Mooltan. According to native accounts, a few days' journey to the west of Hyderabad, in the centre of seven ranges of hills, there is a pagoda dedicated to the goddess Bhavani, at a place named Aracote.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

ARAIL.—A town in the province of Allahabad, across the Jumna, exactly opposite to the city and fortress of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 24′ N., lon. 81° 50′ E.

ARAVARCOURCHY.—A small town in the Coimbatoor district, fifty-four miles W. by S. from Trichinopoly; lat. 10° 41′ N., lon. 77° 54′ E. In A.D. 1800 it contained above 300 houses, the inhabitants of which spoke the Tamul language. This place was formerly inhabited by a person of the Bayda caste, named Arava, the name signifying the seat of Arava. It afterwards became subject to Madura, and then to Mysore, the curtur or sovereign of which built a neat fort near the town, and gave it the name of Vijaya Mangalum, by the Mahomedans pronounced Bijamangle. About the end of Hyder's reign an English army took the fort, at which time the town was destroyed.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

ARCOT, NORTHERN.—A district in the Carnatic under the Madras presidency, which also includes Sativaid, Pulicat, Cooncoody, in the Barramahal, part of the Balaghaut, and of the western pollams. The limits of this district are ill defined, but it may be described generally as bounded on the north by Cuddapah and Nellore; on the south by the southern division of Arcot; on the east it has the sea and the district of Chingleput; and on the west the Balaghaut of Cuddapah.

In 1809, prior to the introduction of an improved system, this fiscal division was in a very miserable condition; but it has since been greatly benefited by judicious management, and is now comparatively prosperous. In 1810 the rented villages were 3,534; villages not rented 65; besides deserted villages. The large tanks, the water of which contributed to the revenue, were 2,698 in number, of which 451 were out of repair; smaller tanks 1,322, of which 510 were damaged. The watercourses from rivers were 678; from springs 647; from anicuts 238; and from wells 19,223, of which 548 wanted repair; and from this enumeration may be inferred how much the agriculture of Northern Arcot depends on irrigation and the good condition of the tanks. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue was 734,325 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 892,292 persons. The principal river is the Palam, and the chief towns Arcot, Wallajanagur, Vellore, and Tripetty. —(*Public MS. Documents, Hodson, &c.*)

ARCOT, SOUTHERN.—A district in the Carnatic under the Madras presidency, extending south-east to Portonovo, which it includes; and during the last war it also comprehended Pondicherry and the lands attached. To the north it is bounded by the northern division of Arcot; on the south by Tanjore and Trichinopoly; on the east it has the Chingleput district and the sea; and on the west Salem and the Balaghaut Carnatic. In 1810 it was estimated to contain about 6,400 square miles.

In 1806 this district was in a very miserable condition, and continued so until 1809, when a triennial settlement of the land revenue was introduced. The number of villages then rented was 3,742, and those not rented 246: total 3,988 villages. In 1817 the total gross collection of the public revenue, exclusive of Pondicherry, was 647,954 pagodas; and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 455,020 persons. The principal trading ports are Cudalore and Porto-

novo.— (*Ravenshaw, Fifth Report, Hodson, &c.*)

Arcot (*Arucati*).—The Mussulmaun capital of the Carnatic, situated on the south side of the Palar river, sixty-eight miles W.S.W. from Madras. Lat. 12° 52′ N., lon. 79° 22′ E. The bed of the Palar is here half a mile wide, but in the dry season is almost destitute of water. The nearest hills are those to the north of the cantonments, which at a distance appear clothed with verdure, and do not exhibit the smooth naked masses of granite so frequently met with in the Barramahal and Mysore countries.

The fort is of great extent, and has been a regular formidable citadel; but its principal defences were blown up above twenty years ago, and its area is now covered with fields of raghy and the castor-oil plant, interspersed with the scattered ruins of a few buildings. On the side towards the Palar, the ramparts protect the place from inundation, and are kept in perfect repair. The town is enclosed by walls, and contains the former palace of the Arcot Nabobs, of which the principal gateway is still entire, but all the rest is a heap of ruins. The Jumma musjeed is a handsome Mahomedan mosque, with seven open arches in front, and two small but not inelegant minars. Besides this there are four or five other Mahomedan religious edifices of respectable architecture, and their tombs are numerous; but that of the Nabob Saadut Oolla is the only remarkable one.

Arcot was formerly the nominal capital of the Carnatic below the ghauts, as the Nabob's dominions were designated by the Mahomedans and English, and it is said to have been noticed by Ptolemy as the capital of the Soræ, or Soramundalum, whence Coromandel; but the existing town is quite of modern date. After the Mogul armies captured Ginjee, they found it so extremely unhealthy that they were obliged to canton on the plains of Arcot, which led to the establishment of this capital, about A.D. 1716. At present the town is chiefly inhabited by Mahomedans, who speak the Deccany dialect, which we name Hindostany.

Anwar ud Deen, the Nabob of Arcot, was killed in battle A.D. 1749, after which this place was taken by Chunda Saheb, the French candidate. In 1751 it was retaken by Capt. Clive, with 200 Europeans and 300 sepoys; the garrison being panic-struck made no resistance, although they amounted to 1,100 men. He was immediately besieged by the French and their allies, but notwithstanding the garrison consisted of only 120 Europeans and 200 sepoys fit for service, he resisted fifty days under every disadvantage, and at last compelled the enemy to raise the siege. It afterwards fell into the possession of the French native allies, but was finally taken in 1760 by Col. Coote, after the battle of Wandiwash. In 1780 it surrendered to Hyder, and with its vicinity suffered greatly by his different invasions, and also during the misgovernment of the Nabob's revenue officers.

Travelling distance from Madras seventy-three miles; from Seringapatam 217; from Calcutta 1,070; and from Delhi 1,277.—(*Fullarton, F. Buchanan, Orme, Wilkes, Rennell, &c.*)

Ardinghy (*Urddhanga*).—A town in the Tondimans country, province of the Carnatic, fifty-two miles S.S.W. from Tanjore. Lat. 10° 8′ N., lon. 79° 3′ E.

Arentis.—A small rocky island in the Eastern seas; lat. 5° 14′ N., lon. 115° 10′ E.

Arfae.—The name of a very high mountain in Papua, or New Guinea, bearing due south from Dory Harbour.

Argha.—A town in the Nepaulese dominions, 110 W.N.W. from Gorkha; lat. 28° 15′ N., lon 82° 47′ E. This place stands on a hill, on the summit of which surrounding the chief's castle are about 150 houses,

and 350 more near the middle of the ascent, all with mud walls and thatched roofs. The inhabitants, with the exception of a few Brahmins and Rajpoots, are one-half Kasiyas, and the rest impure cultivators and tradesmen.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

ARGAUM *(Arigrama)*.—A small village in the province of Berar, thirty-eight miles W.S.W. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 77° 3′ E. On the plains near this place a battle was fought on the 28th November 1803, between the British army under General Wellesley and that of the Nagpoor Raja, in which the latter was totally defeated, with the loss of thirty-eight pieces of cannon, all his ammunition, baggage, elephants, and a great slaughter of his troops. He soon after sued for peace, which was granted. The village in 1820 formed part of the Nizam's dominions.

ARIANCOOPAN.—A small town on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, three miles south from Pondicherry; lat. 11° 54′ N., lon. 79° 52′ E. In 1748 this was a fortified town, and taken by Admiral Boscawen with great difficulty prior to his unsuccessful siege of Pondicherry. The fortifications have long disappeared, but the place still belongs to the French, who resort here for recreation on festival days, when tents and temporary booths are erected, and amusements pursued with their characteristic gaiety. The French have a church here, and to the north of the town there is a ferry across the Ariancoopan or Vellenore river.—(*Fullarton, Orme, &c.*)

ARIELOOR *(Aryalar)*.—A town in the Carnatic twenty-eight miles N. from Tanjore; lat. 11° 7′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E.

ARIM *(or Aring)*.—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-five miles W.S.W. from Sambhulpoor; lat. 20° 37′ N., lon. 82° 36′ E. About 1775 this place belonged to a Goand chief tributary to the Rajah of Nagpoor. It was then a more flourishing village than is usually found in these unwholesome tracts, as it contained some weavers, and was frequented by itinerant merchants.—(*Leckie, &c.*)

ARINKIL.—See WARANGOL.

ARIPPO.—A small village in the island of Ceylon, Bay of Condatchy, where the civil and military authorities reside during the season of the pearl fishery. The surrounding country is barren and uncultivated. Lat. 8° 40′ N., lon. 79° 47′ E., 120 miles N.N.E. from Colombo.

ARKI.—The residence and headquarters of Ummer Singh, the Gorkha commander, during the predominance of that people among the hills between the Sutleje and Jumna; lat. 31° 3′ N., lon. 76° 55′ E., sixty-eight miles E.N.E. from Luddeeana.

ARMEATIE.—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, thirty-seven miles N.E. from Maniepoor; lat. 26° 8′ N., lon. 81° 46′ E.

ARMEGON.—A town in the Carnatic, sixty-six miles N. from Madras, lat. 14° N., lon. 8° 11′ E. This was the first English settlement in the Carnatic prior to the acquisition of Madras. In A.D. 1625, the East-India Company's principal agents having obtained a piece of ground from the naik or chief of the district, they erected a factory at Armegon, which in 1628 was described as being defended by twelve pieces of cannon and twenty-eight factors and soldiers. In 1822 the Armegon shoal was ordered to be surveyed, to ascertain if a safe harbour could be made between it and the main-land.—See BLACKWOOD'S HARBOUR.—*Bruce, &c.*

ARNEE *(Arani)*.—A town in the Carnatic, seventy-four miles S.W. from Madras; lat. 12° 46′ N., lon. 79° 23′ E. During Hyder's invasion of the Carnatic in 1782, his great magazines were deposited in the fortress of Arnee.

AROO.—A large island in the Eastern seas to the south of Papua, the centre of which lies nearly in the 135th degree of east longitude, and

the 6th of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles by 35 the average breadth. As this island has never been explored, little is known either of the country or its inhabitants. The Chinese merchants settled at Banda carry on a traffic with this remote island, from whence they procure pearls, bird-nests, tortoise-shell, and slaves. An aromatic named missoy bark, resembling cinnamon in its flavour, and much used among the Eastern islands, is principally procured here and at Papua; but it is rarely carried to Europe.

Aroo is conjectured to be one of the places where the bird of paradise breeds, of which seven species are described by Valentyn. They are caught by the Papuas, who draw their entrails and fumigate them, having first cut their legs off, which gave rise to the fabulous report that this bird had no legs, but kept constantly on the wing. The arrangement of their plumage is such as greatly to facilitate their continuing long in the air, but when they do touch the earth they re-ascend with great difficulty, and a particular species is said to be unable to rise again. The largest are about thirty inches in length.

ARRACAN.

(Rekhaing).—A maritime province of India beyond the Ganges, recently acquired by conbuest from the Birman empire. Including its dependencies, Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandowy, it lies between 18° and 21° north lat. On the north it is separated from the Chittagong district by the river Nauf; on the south from Bassein in Pegu by a small hill-stream about lat. 18° N.; to the east it has the Arracan mountains, and on the west the Bay of Bengal. In extreme length it may be estimated at 230, by an average breadth of fifty miles, occupying an area of about 11,500 square miles. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this country is described as follows: "To the south-east is a large country named Arkung, to which the port or bunder of Chittagong properly belongs. There are plenty of elephants, but great scarcity of horses."

Between the mountains and the sea this province is covered with thick woody jungles, so inundated and intersected by rivers, lakes, creeks, and inlets of the sea, as to form a chain of peninsulas, isthmuses, and islands, completely interrupting the land communication between villages, which can only be visited by water. The soil is in general argillaceous, but in the vicinity of the hills a rich loam prevails. Rain may be said to fall throughout the whole year, as showers are frequent in February, March, and April, and the periodical rains continue from June to November. Even in November and December, occasional and sometimes heavy showers occur. According to one statement, the fall of rain between the first of June and the end of September amounted to 196 inches, and nearly the whole surface of the low country was under water.

When conquered by the British in 1825, Arracan was found partitioned into fifty-five divisions of different sizes, each of which, according to its dimensions, contained from two to sixty paras or small villages. In 1826 the total population of Arracan, including Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandowy, was only estimated at 100,000 persons, of whom six-tenths were Mughs, three-tenths Mahomedans, and one-tenth Burmese; indeed not more than 400 square miles of the whole surface were supposed to be under cultivation, presenting a most remarkable contrast to the adjacent district of Chittagong, of which Arracan is only a continuation. The head Mahomedans generally speak good Hindostany, the lower orders of that faith a sort of mixed dialect; but the prevailing language is the Mugh, which although it differs in some respects (especially pronunciation) from the Burmese, is written in the same character. Rekhaing, or Arracan, is rather the vulgar name of

the capital than of the people, who by those of Ava are named Great Mranmas, as being the original source of both races. The Mughs on the sea-coast are not addicted to agriculture, preferring hunting, fishing, and trafficking. Slavery is tolerated in all shapes, and when a man wants to raise money he pawns his wife. The Mughs have no invariable mode of disposing of their dead; some burn the bodies, others bury them, the wealthy in coffins richly gilt. They follow the Buddhist doctrines intermixed with many Hindoo superstitions, such as bloody sacrifices to conciliate the deities of the rivers, woods, and mountains, but their sacerdotal order wear a yellow dress like those of Ava. They do not appear to be much respected by the laity.

Besides these maritime Mughs, there are many rude tribes of the same name scattered about the interior of Arracan, and beyond its eastern limits, as well as those of Chittagong. The territory of the principal chief of the Joomea Mughs in 1794, extended from the south banks of the Sunkar river, over the vallies watered by the branches of the Mamuri and Edgong rivers. The people of this central tribe name themselves Reekrisah, or the sons of sweet water, as they call the Sunkar river. They dwell in villages, and have convents and priests, who instruct the boys to read and write. Discrepancies exist between their religious doctrines and those of the Burmese Rahaans, but the basis appears the same. They acknowledge a Brahm or supreme being, who they say gave a different religion to each of one hundred and one nations, which would be considered heretical in Ava, but they agree as to their moonies or law-givers. The southern tribes of Joomea Mughs, in 1798, occupied six villages on the upper part of the river that passes Ramoo, which the Bengalese name Bakkally. They are poorer, but in other respects differ little from the northern Joomeas. The latter have subjected still more rude tribes, who although tributary, retain their own chiefs, customs, and languages. A few Saksahs or Tripuras are settled among the southern Joomeas. By the Bengalese they are named Rajbungsies, which literally translated means the "descendants of princes," but all over India is a term denoting a person of low birth. The rude people most numerous among the Joomea Mughs are by the Bengalese named Mooroong, and by the Arracaners, Mroo, but they designate themselves Moroosa. They are said to acknowledge a supreme chief named Layklang, residing at a distance in the Ava territories; but each village has a distinct chief, and the different communities are frequently engaged in hostilities. Both the Joomeas and the Bengalese think this tribe so superlatively impure that they will not interfere in their domestic feuds, and let them fight it out.

A genuine Arracan Mugh may be described as follows. In external appearance he is of moderate stature, but very robust, the face broad, cheek-bones wide and high, nose flat, and eyes somewhat oblique, like those of the Chinese. He differs not more from his feeble neighbour of Bengal, in form, feature, and physical strength, than in general habits, particularly with regard to diet. Although he stands on some ceremony about taking the life of an animal, he makes none of devouring it when it is dead, and from the rat to the elephant inclusive, nothing comes to him amiss. Some species of maggots, and a variety of vegetable productions rejected by most other nations, supply a meal when nothing better can be procured; in short, it is almost impossible to suppose a situation short of absolute confinement in which a Mugh is likely to be starved. Besides being a most foul feeder, the Mugh is personally foul and filthy, an idea always suggested to a stranger by the disgusting appearance of his black teeth and red saliva.

In Arracan proper the only land

assessed was that in which sugar-cane, hemp, indigo, onions, garlic, and turmeric were grown. The average number of ploughs employed is said to have been 3,000, chiefly drawn by buffaloes. The teak tree is found near the sources of the Morossy and Kaladyur rivers, but it is so inaccessible, that timber has usually been imported from Rangoon. Other species of timber, however, are abundant. With respect to fruit, the pine-apples and plantains are of a superior quality; mangoes, jacks, sweet limes, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits are plenty; oranges scarce. The indigo plant grows wild and flourishes, but the art of extracting the colouring matter is unknown. The staples of the province are rice and salt, and for the culture of the first, the country, on account of its redundant moisture and burning sun, is peculiarly adapted; nothing is wanted but a good government and the human animal. Limestone may be procured from the islands of Ramree, Cheduba, and Juggoo. Gold and silver particles are found in the water-courses of Basseen, for liberty to collect which the gatherers pay a certain fine. A considerable traffic was formerly carried on between Arracan and Ava; the first exporting Hindostany and European goods, such as velvet, broad-cloths, piece-goods, silks, muslins, betel-nut, salt, and other articles; receiving in return ivory, silver, copper, palmira, sugar, tobacco, oil, and lacquered-ware.

During the Burmese sway, the custom-house duties were collected at many chokeys, of which Ooreatung was the principal; the others being mostly farmed out. The import and export duties then realized about 50,000 rupees per annum. The five principal ferries were also farmed, and the profits and produce of seventeen of the largest nullahs or water-courses; bees'-wax, timber, tobacco, cotton, bamboos, and hill-cloth, were all government monopolies. There was also a rude mint, equal to the coinage of about 2,000 rupees per day. In A.D. 1826 the prospective annual revenue for the next five years was estimated as follows:

Land revenue	150,000 per ann.
Import and export duties	50,000
Court fees and fines	20,000
	220,000 rupees.

besides the monopolies of salt and opium.

A native history of Arracan begins in A.D. 701, and continues through a series of 120 native princes down to modern times. According to this document, its sovereigns formerly occupied a much more important station in the politics of India than they have recently done: for, according to these annals, the dominions of Arracan at one period extended over Ava, part of China, and a portion of Bengal. Certainly, at present, nothing remains to indicate such a prior state of power and civilization, for its condition when acquired by the British was to the last degree savage and barbarous. It does not appear, however, until the Burmese invasion, it had ever been so completely subdued as to acknowledge permanent vassalage to a foreign power, although the Moguls and Peguers had at different times carried their arms into the heart of the country. During the reign of Aurengzebe, the unfortunate Sultan Shuja, his brother and rival, was basely murdered by the Arracan Raja. The Portuguese, sometimes as allies, at others as open enemies, gained an establishment, which only decayed with the general ruin of their interests in Asia. In 1783 (corresponding with the Mugh year 1145) the province was conquered, after a feeble resistance, by the Burmese, and was followed by the surrender of Cheduba, Ramree, Sandowy, and the Broken Isles. The Mughs subsequently made many efforts to rescue their country, more especially in 1811, under a rebel

chief named Kingberring; but were unable to withstand the bravery, discipline, and cruelty of the Burmese; who even managed to extort a surplus revenue, of which about 18,000 rupees were annually remitted to Ava, for the support of the white elephant and his establishment. Arracan proved the grave of General Morrison's army in 1825, and has continued equally destructive, even to the native regiments stationed on the sea-coast and among the islands. Its population is scanty and uncivilized; it possesses no article of export but salt; yields little revenue; requires a burthensome civil and military establishment; and, in a merely pecuniary point of view, is a most unprofitable acquisition.—(*Capt. C. Paton, F. Buchanan, Lieut. Trant, Symes, Morgan, Medical Transactions, Cox, Leyden, &c.*)

ARRACAN.—The capital of the Arracan province, situated on a river of the same name, about forty miles from the sea; lat. 20° 30′ N., lon. 92° 5′ E. This place stands in a valley surrounded by hills, the highest not exceeding 500 feet, among which are lakes and marshes, communicating with a number of small streams, running between low muddy banks. A nullah, filled by the tide, flows through the valley, which separates it at Mahatta from the great Arracan river. The tide overflows the flat borders of the river to a considerable extent; its reflux converts these into a noisome swamp, and in this swamp great part of the town of Arracan is built, the water flowing under the houses, which are raised on posts, after the manner of the Mughs, Burmese, Malays, and other eastern nations. With the exception of the swampy ground, the soil consists of rock, crumbling on the surface, and forming itself into gravel, well adapted for roads or the floors of houses. The hills generally assume a conical shape, some being insulated, others connected by narrow ridges, but all scattered in an irregular manner, and separated by many ill-ventilated ravines, vallies, and confined spots of level ground, each occupied by a stream, a lake, or a marsh. A thin layer of loose black soil covers the mouldering rock; and where this has not been washed away by the rain, grass and jungle shrubs abound; but few or no trees of any considerable growth are to be seen, except in the vallies. Fifteen miles to the eastward a range of mountains, about 2,000 feet high, take a direction north and south nearly parallel with the coast, and another range of much less height skirts the shore. Between these the distance varies, but in the parallel of Arracan may be about fifty miles. The alluvial plains that intervene are intersected by a labyrinth of small rivers, in communication with the principal channel, which takes a northerly course, and diversified by detached groups and ridges of hills, few exceeding 700 feet in height.

The town is composed of bamboo huts, built on each bank of the stream, and connected by wooden bridges. In its centre is a square, surrounded by a wall, and containing pagodas, with images of Gaudma, from an inch to twenty feet in height; they are also numerous on the adjacent hills, most of them solid like pyramids.

This town and fort were captured by the Burmese in 1783, after a feeble opposition. They found a considerable booty, but on nothing was a higher value placed than an image of Gaudma (the Gautama of the Hindoos), made of brass and highly burnished. The figure is about ten feet high, in a sitting posture, with the legs crossed and feet inverted, the left hand resting on the lap, the right pendant. This image is believed to be the original resemblance of the rishi (saint) taken from life, and it is so highly venerated, that pilgrims have for centuries resorted to it from the remotest countries where the supremacy of Gaudma is acknowledged, to pay their devotions at the feet of his

brazen representative. There were also five images of Racshyas (the demons of the Hindoos), of the same metal, and of gigantic stature, the guardians of the sanctuary. A piece of ordnance of most enormous dimensions was also found, composed of huge bars of iron beaten into form. This ponderous cannon measured thirty feet in length, two and a half in diameter at the mouth, and ten inches in the calibre. It was transported by the Burmese to Ammerapoora by water, as a military trophy; and Gaudma, with his infernal guards, was in like manner conveyed to that capital with much pomp and superstitious parade. The town of Arracan has probably much deteriorated since the above era, as, when captured by General Morrison's army in 1825, it was found in a most miserable condition, and pestilentially unwholsome. In 1826, Akyab was the principal station in Arracan. —(*Symes, Morgan, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Arracan Mountains.—A chain of mountains which commence at Cape Negrais, and proceed in a northerly direction almost to the southern bank of the Brahmaputra in Assam. By the natives they are named the Yomadoung, or Anamectopiu mountains, and form a strong and well defined boundary for the province on the side of Ava. Their general elevation seems to be from 3,000 to 5,000 feet. They were crossed in 1826 from Shembewgewn, on the river Ava, to Amherst Harbour in Arracan, by Lieut. Trant and a detachment of sepoys, and were found to decline towards the east in a succession of ranges, but more abruptly towards the west. They were supposed to be destitute of water, but abundance of springs were discovered that might be easily collected into reservoirs; and it appeared that a considerable commerce had been carried on by this route before the British invasion.

These mountains were in the same year crossed further south, from Padangmew to Ramree, by Lieut. Browne and a party of sepoys. This route was found much more difficult than the other, and had never been much frequented. One part of the road was found to be 4,000 feet above the level of the sea by barometrical mensuration; but this was not the greatest elevation attained. No human being or cultivated ground was seen on the line of march, the whole country being a succession of hills, jungles, and ravines.—(*Lieut. Trant, Lieut. Browne, &c.*)

Arrah.—A large and populous town in the province of Bahar, the capital of the Shahabad district; lat. 25° 35′ N., lon. 83° 57′ E., thirty-five miles west from Patna.

Arratum.—A British division in the province of Gujerat and district of Kaira, extending along the east corner of the gulf of Cambay, and bounded on the south by the Goelwar and Bhownuggur territories. It is intersected by various small rivers of short course. The principal towns are Dundooka and Ranpoor.

Arrawud.—A town in the province of Khandesh, which in 1816 belonged to Holcar. Lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E., thirty-four miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. The Satpoorah mountains, covered with wood and jungle, are about six miles distant.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Arrundool.—A large town, or rather the remains of one, in the province of Candeish, seventy miles S.W. from Boorhanpoor. In 1816, it contained many large buildings, but in a very ruinous condition.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

Arrysir.—A town in the province of Cutch, twenty-six miles N.N.E. from Mallia; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 71° 3′ E.

Arval.—A town in the province of Bahar, on the south-east side of the Sone river, forty miles S.W. from Patna, lat. 25° 15. N., lon. 84° 44′ E.

Ashta.—A village near Punderpoor,

in the province of Bejapoor, where in 1818 Goklah, the Peshwa's commander-in-chief was defeated and slain. The Satara Raja, his mother and two brothers were captured, the Peshwa himself escaping with the greatest difficulty.

ASHTA.—A town in the Malwa province fifty-nine miles E. by S. from the city of Oojein; lat. 23° 3′ N., lon. 76° 46′ E. During the Pindarry war this was the head-quarters of Cheetoo, and was subsequently conferred on the Nabob of Bhopaul.

ASEERGHUR *(or Hasser)*.—A town and fortress of great strength in the province of Candeish, the capital of a district belonging to Sindia, but the fort and a few surrounding villages were ceded to the British government; lat. 21° 28′ N., lon. 76° 23′ E., twelve miles N.N.E. from Boorhanpoor. By Abul Fazel it is called the capital of Candeish, but native authorities place it half in the Hindoo division of Nemaur, as it stands on the Satpoorah range of mountains which separates the provinces. Its name is said to originate from the founder Assa, a rich Hindoo zemindar of the Aheer tribe. The upper hill, in its greatest length from east to west, is about 1,100 yards, and its extreme breadth about 600, but owing to its irregular shape the area does not exceed 300,000 square yards. It crowns the top of a detached hill 750 feet high, and round the base of the wall enclosing the area is a bluff precipice, from eighty to 100 perpendicular depth, and so well scarped as to leave no avenues of ascent except at two places, both of which are strongly fortified. Aseerghur has also the rare advantage of possessing an abundant supply of water; but it also presents many ravines and hilly ramifications, which greatly facilitate the approaches of an enemy. A sally port of extraordinary construction descends through the rock at the south-eastern extremity, which can be easily blocked up by dropping down stones at certain stages of the ascent near the top. The principal road to the fort is on the south-west side, where, in consequence, a double line of works are erected, and the masonry of the whole is uncommonly well finished. A third line of works, called the lower fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the pettah, which has a wall on the south side, but is open elsewhere, being naturally protected by ravines and deep hollows, that extend in every direction.

Aseerghur was the capital of Candeish when subdued by the Emperor Acber, and is described by Abul Fazel as situated on a hill and incomparably strong. In A.D. 1803 it surrendered to the army under Col. Stevenson without much resistance, and the same year was restored to Sindia at the conclusion of a peace. In 1819 it became necessary again to besiege this formidable strong-hold, Jeswunt Row Lar, the (as Sindia asserted) refractory governor, having rejected all overtures. When all the detachments had joined, the besieging army under Generals Doveton and Malcolm amounted to 20,000 men, and it was captured after an obstinate resistance, with the loss of 213 men killed and wounded, including eleven European officers, and also one company of sepoys, blown up in the explosion of the magazines, containing 300 barrels of gunpowder. The loss of the enemy was only forty-three killed and ninety-five wounded, for they fought under excellent personal cover except from shells. Indeed, it was entirely owing to the havock made in their walls that they were compelled to surrender, such having been the effect of twenty-two heavy-guns, and twenty-six mortars and howitzers, in battery, during sixteen days open trenches.

In 1820 Aseerghur remained nearly in the same state as when it surrendered, the trenches in the upper fort still open, and fragments of shells lying scattered about among the ruins. Half of the garrison was in tents and the other half quartered in the great mosque, a spacious structure of grey stone, with two minars, but without any cupola. Close to one of the tanks on the west side off the fort is a re-

markable sally port, conducting by a flight of steps cut in the bottom through the body of the rock in which magazines are also excavated. The pettah of Aseerghur, a large irregular village with one good street or bazar, stands at the base of the rock, and in 1822 contained only 2,000 inhabitants.

The approach to Aseerghur from the northward through the Kuttee pass, is over a wild tract of country, and the vicinity is infested by tigers, so numerous and daring, as to enter the lower fort and carry off some of the garrison. The wolves are also exceedingly troublesome. This fortress with a small tract of jungly unproductive land belongs to the British government, but stands in the midst of Sindia's territories. In 1824, the civil and military establishments were transferred to Bombay, having until then been under the Bengal presidency.—(*Blacker, Fullarton, Malcolm, Abul Fuzel, &c.*)

Ashnoor.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, twelve miles E.S.E. of Jalraputun, which in 1820 contained about 1,200 inhabitants, and the surrounding country was rich and well cultivated. Lat. 24° 30′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Asia Isles.—A cluster of low islands in the eastern seas covered with trees, lat. 1° N., lon. 131° 30′ E.

Assahan.—This is the name of a town, country, and river on the N.E. coast of the island of Sumatra, the first situated in lat. 3° 1′ N., lon. 99° 52′ E. The river at its mouth is about 1,500 yards wide, but is shallow and difficult of access on account of an extensive sand-bank. The country is named from the abundance of a sort of long lank grass.

There was formerly a colony of Javanese and also one of Portugueze settled up the Assahan river, and the remains of an old Javanese fortification are still visible about seventy miles from its extremity.

In 1822, commerce had much decreased, but there were still about eighty prows of various sizes belonging to the community, engaged in trafficking to Malacca, Penang, and Singapoor. The principal imports are salt, opium, and coarse cotton goods: arms and gunpowder are at all times welcome articles. The exports are dye woods, rattans, rice and wax, besides horses and slaves; the price of the first being from twenty to thirty dollars; of the last, women, forty; children, twenty, and old men twelve dollars per head. Formerly 300, almost all females, were exported. Tin is said to be abundant in the mountains of the interior. Inland there are many Batta tribes, speaking various dialects, some addicted to cannibalism, others not. The names of the chief abstinent tribes are the Karaukarau, the Pedimbanau, and the Tubbas. In 1822, the total population of the Assahan principality of every description was estimated at 70,000 souls.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

ASSAM

(Asam).

This remote country adjoins the province of Bengal at the north-eastern corner, about the ninety-first degree of east longitude, from whence it stretches in an easterly direction to an undefined distance; but it is probable that about the ninety-sixth degree of east longtitude it comes into contact with several barbarous and unknown tribes, who occupy the intervening space from thence to the province of Yunan in China. In this direction it follows the course of the Brahmaputra, being in fact the valley through which that river flows. The average breadth of this valley may be estimated at sixty miles, although in a few places of Upper Assam, where the mountains recede farthest, the breadth considerably exceeds that distance. In its greatest dimensions Assam may be estimated at 350 miles in length by sixty the average breadth, divided into three provinces: Camroop on the west, Assam in the centre, and Seediya at the eastern extremity.

In 1809 the territory of the Assam raja no where reached the northern hills, the deb raja of Bootan having taken possession of the tracts adjacent thereto, which is a modern usurpation, since the breaking out of the disturbances that have so long desolated this unhappy country. The western province, named Camroop, with several subordinate or intermixed petty jurisdictions, extends from the British boundary to near the celebrated temple of middle Kamakhya (lat. 26° 30′ N., lon. 93° E.), being about 130 miles in length. From the boundary opposite to Goalpara to Nogurbera, a distance of twenty-one miles, the Assamese then possessed only the northern bank of the Brahmaputra, so that on the south side the length of the Camroop was only 109 miles. Its width on the south side of the river may be reckoned at from fifteen to thirty, and on the north side, on an average thirty miles. About 104 miles above Gohati, which stands in lon. 91° 50′ E., the Brahmaputra separates into two branches, and encloses an island said to be five days' journey in length and about one in width. This province contains many low hills covered with woods, and also a great extent of fine low land, all susceptible of cultivation.

Assam Proper, the middle province of the kingdom, was then (1809) of greater extent than the western; but no European having penetrated far beyond the capital (Gohati), situated at its western extremity, there was no data for ascertaining its length. The portion north of the Brahmaputra, named Charidwar, was supposed to exceed 200 miles in length, by twenty in average breadth; but the length on the south side of that river was reckoned less considerable. It commenced near the Middle Kamakhya, about 130 miles E. from Goalpara, and reached to Upper Kamakhya, ten miles below Tikliya Potar Mukh. Within these limits it comprehended the upper half of the western island formed by the Brahmaputra, and included the whole of the very large island named Majuli, between the Brahmaputra and a large tributary, named the Dehing. The province of Assam Proper was then considered of a higher and better soil than that of Camroop, and not so jungly and hilly. Of the third and most remote province, Seediya, nothing was then known, except that it was a small tract on the western side of the Dikrong river, about lon. 95° 10′ E. In Mahomedan geography Assam is considered as separated into three grand divisions, called Ootrecool, Dukhincool, and Majuli, which by Abul Fazel, in 1582, are described as follows: "The dominions of Assam join to Camroop; he is a very powerful prince, lives in great state, and when he dies, his principal attendants, both male and female, are voluntarily buried alive along with his corpse."

From the confines of Bengal at the Kandar custom-house, the valley as well as the river and boundary mountains, preserve a northerly direction to a considerable distance, but afterwards incline to east by north, and the valley through its whole length is divided by the Brahmaputra into longitudinal portions, those to the south having generally the greatest breadth. The river Cailasi is alleged to have been formerly between the British territory and Assam; but at present no part of that river passes through the British dominions. This encroachment of the Assamese is said to have taken place some time between the years 1770 and 1780, when six small districts were taken from the Bijnee raja, then tributary to Bengal. In 1809 the Assam territory, where it was entered from Bengal, commenced north of the Brahmaputra at Kandar, and on the south at the Nogurbera hill. On the north Assam was bounded by the successive mountainous ranges of Bootan, Auka, Dophla, and Meeree, and on the south by the Garrow mountains, which rise in proportion to their progress eastward, and change the name of Garrow to that of Naga.

Such was the description of Assam in 1809, since which date it has been penetrated even beyond its utmost eastern limits; but the topographical documents and reports of the different surveying officers having been withheld in Bengal, our information regarding the interior is not so satisfactory as could be wished, more especially with respect to latitudes and longitudes. In 1826 an attempt was made to prosecute the inquiry along the Brahmaputra towards its source, which succeeded in penetrating among the mountains, five days' march beyond Brahmacoond (which was found not to be the source of the Brahmaputra) into the country of the Meeshoo Mismee tribe, and within four days' journey of the first Lama village. In May 1827 Lieutenants Wilcox and Burlton proceeded from Seediya to the eastward, with the intention of crossing the Langtan snowy mountains into the Khampti country, and in the direction of the upper part of the Irawady river. They crossed the above mountains early in May, when the snow was lying on the surface, and it occupied twelve days to reach the residence of the Borkhamti raja, on the opposite side of the mountains, during the whole of which time it rained continually, and the travellers were much infested by leeches and a sort of venemous fly, the sting of which always produced a disagreeable sore.

The Khamties and their raja proved friendly, and they remained at their village until the second of June, during which interval they visited the sources of the Irawady, distant only twelve miles. Although unable to trace it to any single ultimate spring, they were satisfied, from the reports of the natives, that it originated in the mountains covered with perpetual snow, about fifty miles to the north of their station, the river having, where they examined it (lat. 27° 30′ N.) every appearance of a mountain torrent, and notwithstanding the perpetual rain, it was fordable, and not more than eighty yards broad. The Irawady consequently cannot be a continuance of the Sanpoo; and according to intelligence collected on the spot, there is no considerable stream to the east between the Irawady and Loukiang. The country from hence to the frontiers of China is extremely rugged and impracticable, and never traversed even by the hardy Khamti mountaineers. It seems probable, therefore, that both the Loukiang and the Irawady, as well as the Brahmaputra, spring from different faces of the same cluster of snowy mountains, which effectually bar all communication to the north. The Irawady thence to Bhanmo flows through a barbarous and unexplored country, covered with hills, jungles, and mountains. The party returned by a different and shorter route, but over still loftier mountains, on which the snow was lying, in some parts twelve feet thick, on the fourth of June.

The number and magnitude of the rivers in Assam probably surpass those of any other country in the world of equal extent. They are in general of a sufficient depth at all seasons to admit of a commercial intercourse in shallow boats, and during the rainy season boats of the largest size find sufficient depth of water. The total number has been estimated at sixty-one, but the principal are the Brahmaputra or Luhit, the Dihong, the Dibong, the Dikho, and the Dikrong.

The Brahmaputra has been traced among the hills five days' journey beyond Brahmacoond, into the Borkhamti country, where its size is reduced to that of an insignificant mountain torrent: its source cannot therefore be very remote, and it probably originates in the same range of hills that give birth to the Loukiang and Irawady, but on a different face. In lat. 27° 54′ N., lon. 95° 24′ E., ten days' journey below Brahmacoond, this river ceases to be navigable, its channel there being a complete mass of rock, with a depth (in March 1825) of only four feet in the deepest part, and with so rapid a current, swelled by every shower, as to preclude tracking. At that spot it was

150 yards across, and the distance of the extreme banks about 600 yards. Between the meridians of 94° and 96° 30′, and lat. 27° and 28° the Brahmaputra bends from a northerly to an E.N.E. direction, bounded by the Meeree, Abor, and Meeshmee hills, behind which various ranges of lofty snowy mountains (the Langtan) extend all along the northern horizon, to an unknown depth and altitude, apparently like the Himalaya in parallel lines and ridges. Actual observation and the activity of recent explorers, has subverted the pre-existing theory that the Brahmaputra was a continuation of the Sanpoo. It is difficult to account satisfactorily for the mistake into which Major Rennell and other geographers fell respecting the course of this river, for in the time of the Compte de Buffon, the true notion prevailed, as he speaks of a Lake Champé which gives rise to the two great rivers that water Assam and Pegu. These were probably the Brahmaputra and the Irawady, and it must be recollected that until the grand revolution effected by Alompra, the present Burmese empire was subject to Pegu. The head of the Sakato branch of the Brahmaputra was ascertained to be in lat. 27° 51′ N. According to Brahminical geography, the Prabhu mountains form the eastern boundary of Assam, and through them there is a tremendous chasm made by Parasurama (the same who conquered Ceylon and extirpated the Khetries of Malabar), which has ever since admitted the Brahmaputra. This cleft is still named Prabhu Kuthara, because it was made with a mighty scimitar.

Many of the streams contributory to the Brahmaputra are remarkable for the winding of their courses. The Dikrung, although the direct distance be only twenty-five miles, is said to perform a meandering course equal to 100, before it falls into the Brahmaputra. It is also noted for the quantity and quality of its gold, which metal is likewise found in other rivers of Assam, more especially near the mountains. The southern rivers are never rapid; the inundation commencing from the northern, fills both the Brahmaputra and the channels of the southern ones, so that the water has no considerable current until May and June. All the streams east of Seedeeya abound with rapids from the great inclination of their beds.

Assam is bounded on the north by a chain of very lofty mountains, a continuation of those which, taking their rise at the western extremity of Asia, extend under different names for an unknown distance into China. The Assam northern mountains towards the west are inhabited by the Abors and the Mismees, which last extend along to the eastern hills, where they come into contact with the Singhphos. The other tribes adjacent to Assam are the Abors, Dophlas, Garrows, Bijnies, Khamptes, Nagas, Mismees, Moamareas, Meerees, and Singhphos. The five first-named are described under their respective heads. The Meerees are a small and babarous tribe, who have some villages on the banks of the Brahmaputra, about lat. 28° N., lon. 94° E. The principal are Motgong and Meereegong. They differ in language and appearance from the inhabitants of Assam proper, and are armed with bows and poisoned arrows. Before the British conquest they adhered to Seediya Gohain, and opposed the Singhphos.

The Mismee tribe inhabit the country about Brahmacoond, and the sources of the Brahmaputra, where they are collected in small but frequent villages, the houses of which are built along the steep faces of the mountains, in such a manner that the rock forms one side of their mansion, and supports one end of the rafter, the other resting on wooden posts; the space under the floor is occupied by their poultry and cattle. Besides swine and their own hill cattle, wealthy individuals have the small oxen of Assam proper, the chowry-tailed cattle of Tibet; young dogs as a luxury

are held in particular estimation, as is also the musk beetle, which having been squeezed between two stones, they dress as a grill. After a feast the skulls of the cattle are blackened and suspended in rows to ornament their dwellings. The vegetable diet of the Mismees consists principally of Indian corn, and a small grain named bubessia; but they cultivate very small quantities of a white rice, and also maruya, yams, mustard, pepper, cotton, and tobacco. Their common dress is a piece of coarse cotton cloth, but they are very dirty in their persons, scarcely ever having recourse to water for the purposes of ablution. The Mismees can work rudely in iron and brass, but their culinary utensils are mostly of copper, and are obtained from the Lama country, with which they keep up an active trade. They bring from thence smoking pipes, straight swords, dyed woollens, beads, rock-salt, and the chowry-tailed cows, in exchange for which they give musk, skins, a bitter medicinal root, ivory, and other articles, and formerly slaves captured in Assam. Their pipes are commonly marked with Chinese characters, and as well as the swords and beads, are probably of Chinese manufacture. The Mismee females are not kept concealed, and appear fair and of good stature; the men are athletic, with tolerably good complexions. The country surrounding Brahmacoond is better peopled than most tracts in this region, having a number of villages scattered over it, the chiefs of which share the offerings at the sacred well.

The Moamarees (Mahamaris) are a tribe formerly tributary to Assam, but who revolted about A.D. 1790, and under the command of a priest committed the greatest excesses. They inhabited an island formed by the Boree Dihing river, which descending from the east takes a sweep to the southward, before it joins the Luhit or Brahmaputra Proper, and forms a large island about lat. 27° 30′ N., lon. 95° 30′ E., conjectured to be 100 miles in length by forty in breadth. This is probably the Majuli of the old maps, for the one now named Majuli is not more than twenty miles long by four or five wide. This last is situated at the confluence of the Boree Dehing and Boree Luhit with the Brahmaputra, the eastern extremity being in lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 94° 24′ E.; but, as has already been stated, owing to the non-transmission of the surveys from Bengal, all these latitudes, longitudes, and dimensions must be considered very uncertain.

Opposite to Seedeeya, about lat. 27° 52′ N., lon. 95° 16 E., where the Moamarea country ends, that of the Singhphos commences, intersected by the Now Dehing flowing from the south-eastern hills. These Singhpho tribes were formerly tributary to Assam, but after the decay of that ancient kingdom, revolted, and wrought it much woe, plundering the country, and carrying the natives into slavery. In fact, the northern and eastern parts of Assam have been for a considerable time (above forty years) wrested from the original inhabitants by these barbarians, who, encouraged by the intestine discords of the Assamese, descended into and conquered the plains, compelling their new subjects to cultivate them, and transporting so many into the mountains, that prior to 1825, when the British commenced operations in Upper Assam, it was estimated they had possession of 15,000 of these wretched beings. In February 1825 they were expelled by Colonel Richard's detachment, and half of the above number of captives rescued, and negotiations were then carrying on for the liberation of the rest.

Before the British invasion the Singhpho tribes occupied the entire space, bounded by the south and south-east hills on the north of the Brahmaputra, and west by a meridian line drawn from Seediya to the hills, excluding Theok and Makrooni, and the Dipung nullah. They were then divided into twelve tribes, inhabiting different villages, of

which Bhisagong was the most important, and were governed by chiefs acting separately or in concert according to circumstances, but acknowledging no supreme head. They were armed with a short square-ended sword, oblong shield, bows and arrows, and were found very desirous of procuring muskets, although but little acquainted with the use of them. According to tradition the Singhphos emigrated from a much more northerly region (somewhere on the borders of China) than that in which we came in contact with them. Their religion is Buddhism intermixed with many remains of their primitive superstitions; in fact, they appear to be a sort of Buddhist Rajpoots, addicted to war, and delegating the cultivation of the lands to Assamese helots.

The district of Seediya is not considered an integral portion of Assam proper, but has for a very long period been subject to that kingdom. In 1825 it was found in a most wretched condition, and principally inhabited by refugee Khamtics and Mulooks expelled from their own countries to the south-east by the Singhphos. At the above date Seediya was governed by the Seediya Shah, or gohain, a Khamti prince claiming descent from the Hindoo deity Indra, besides whom he worshipped most others of the Brahminical pantheon, after the doctrines of the Assamese heresy, but eat all flesh except that of cows. With the assistance of the Abors, Meeries, and other petty tribes, he attempted to make a stand against the Singhphos. The town or village of Seediya stands at the mouth of the Koondeil nullah; lat. 27° 52′ N.

Under the native government of Assam, before its decline into anarchy, a ready access throughout the country was maintained at all seasons, by the construction of broad and elevated causeways, practicable to pedestrians when all the rest of the plains was under water. In the course of time, during the subsequent convulsions that so long agitated this miserable kingdom, these bunds or causeways nearly disappeared, but in many parts they may still be traced. One of the principal is said to have extended throughout the whole length of Assam from Cooch Bahar to Seediya. In 1826 it was visited at a spot about two miles from a village named Lakhomati Bhoteya, where it runs through a thick jungle following the direction of north 55° east, and dividing the district of Noa Dewar from the Dophla country. The tract on the north side of the causeway belongs to the Dophla raja, whilst the bund itself and the country to the south are within the boundaries of Assam Proper. The causeway at Lakhomati is about eighteen feet broad, and generally eight feet high, but in many parts it is nearly obliterated, and very generally hidden by brushwood and trees of considerable growth. There are no villages along this causeway, probably owing to its having been so completely overgrown with jungle as to have become impassable. At a short distance north of it is a small hill rivulet named the Deiring, flowing over a bed of sand and siliceous stones, among which a half-formed coal has been found.

The animal and vegetable productions of Assam are nearly the same with those of Bengal, which country it much resembles in its physical appearance and the multitude of its rivers. Transplanted rice forms three-fourths of the whole crops. Next to rice a kind of mustard-seed is the most considerable crop, the oil extracted from it being that most in use; indeed the quantity of sesamum is very inconsiderable. Wheat-barley and millet are very little used. Formerly the cytisus cajan was only cultivated for the rearing of the lac insect, but is now preserved for its pulse, and other plants are employed to rear the insect. The most common pulse in Assam is the hairy-podded kidney-bean. Considerable quantities of black pepper are raised, and also long chillies, choyies, gin-

ger, tumeric, capsicums, onions, and garlic. In 1825 English seeds were found to thrive well; the betel leaf is universal; there is plenty of areca-nut, tobacco, and opium, both for home-consumption and exportation. The sugar-cane thrives, but is mostly eaten fresh from the field; a little of the saccharine juice is extracted, but no sugar manufactured. Coco-nuts are very rare; and no palm-wine is made, but oranges abound. Cotton is reared by most of the hill tribes, but is little used by them.

No less than four different kinds of silk-worms are reared, silks of several varieties forming great part of the native clothing, besides leaving a surplus for exportation. The silk-worm reared on the mulberry is the least common, the most common being that produced on a species of laurus, and called muga. The tree is planted and its branches pruned, but the insect is fed on the tree as it grows, and yields two crops: that procured in the beginning of the dry season is red; that which is procured towards the end of spring is white, and reckoned the best. The silk called medangori is reared in Assam Proper, on a tree that is cultivated; the silk called erendi is reared on the ricinus, in large quantities, in Rungpoor.

In Camroop the oxen are the common labouring cattle. In Assam Proper many buffaloes are employed in the plough. Sheep are very scarce, and goats not numerous; there are few horses and no asses. In 1825, the British troops procured fowls, beef, and veal. The Assamese workmen can make locks, padlocks, sacrificial knives, spears, spike-nails, clamps for boat-building, and match-locks. These are innovations; and in 1809, scissors were still unknown. The best goldsmiths are from Bengal. The person who wishes to have any thing made, furnishes the metal, of which the workmen receive a share for their trouble, as they have no capital, except a few miserable tools.

The native women of all castes, from the queen downwards, wear the four kinds of silk produced in the country, and with which three-fourths of the people are clothed; the rich only dressing in cottons, mostly imported from Dacca. Considerable quantities of the two coarser kinds are exported. The raw material is seldom purchased, each family spinning and weaving the silk which it rears; and petty dealers go round and purchase for ready money whatever can be spared for exportation, or for the use of the few persons who do not rear their own silkworms. The proper silk, or pata, is only used for dhoties for the persons of high rank, and the same may be said of the Medangori silks; the Muga silks clothe the middle classes, and the Erendi covers the poor. The cotton weavers are mostly foreigners, and the cloth they produce usually of the coarsest quality. In 1809, there were some workers in ivory, in the Chinese fashion, who it was said could straiten the tooth of an elephant, by covering it with a thick coat of clay and cow-dung, and then exposing it to a fire. According to native report, the useful and simple arts of making butter and cheese were at that date unknown.

Under the old native government, and prior to the expulsion of the Burmese in 1825, the custom-houses towards Bengal were usually farmed out to the best bidder; and the whole trade of the country was, in fact, monopolized by a few individuals, who, agreeably to the terms of a treaty concluded in 1793, ought to have levied only ten per cent. on exports and imports, but in reality extorted as much as they could. Formerly, salt was sold by Europeans settled at Goalpara, to the amount of 100,000 maunds annually; but the trade becoming monopolized by the farmers of the customs, that quantity in 1809 diminished to 35,000 maunds. This might also in part be attributed to a decreased demand; for the population of Assam had been reduced by the long-prevailing anarchy, and those who survived much

impoverished. In 1809, the total value of the exports from Bengal to Assam was only 2,28,000 rupees, of which amount salt was 1,92,000 rupees, and muslins 10,000; the rest a variety of trifling articles, and a few fire-arms secretly smuggled. The value exported amounted to about 1,51,000 rupees, of which sum-total lac was 55,000, cotton 35,000, mustard-seed 22,000, muga-silk cloth 17,500, and muga-silk 11,350, ivory 6,500, and slaves 2,000 rupees. The balance was usually paid in gold, which is found in all the small rivers of Assam that flow from the boundary hills to the north and south, and more especially from the first. Now that the intercourse is quite open, and the British power predominant, it is probable that many other valuable commodities and mineral productions will be discovered, and a brisk trade pushed towards China and Ava.

According to native report, the gold comes from the mine called Pakerguri, and is contained in the sand at the junction of the Donsiri or Donhiri river with the Brahmaputra, about thirty-two miles in a strait line from Gohati. The miners begin to work from the 15th September to the 14th October, and each man is expected to deliver one and a half rupees weight of gold-dust, and may keep any excess, but must also make up any deficiency. In 1809 it was estimated that one thousand men were employed and paid in land, and that consequently the state received 1,500 rupees weight of gold. A rupee's weight of gold was then valued at eleven rupees' worth of silver; but it was adulterated, and formed into small balls, which were carried to Goalpara, and sold at the rate of eleven sicca rupees for the weight of an Assamese rupee. This matter, however, requires further elucidation, which it will ere long no doubt receive. In the province of Seediya, salt is procured from brine pools, and said to be purer and higher-priced than the salt of Bengal.

While Hindostan was under the Mogul emperors, the trade with Assam was a source of considerable national profit, and for many years after the acquisition of the Dewanny in Bengal individuals gained largely, but it afterwards greatly declined. It does not appear that any merchants from Assam ever repaired to Lassa in Tibet, but formerly a commercial intercourse was carried on in the following manner. At a place called Chouna, two months' journey from Lassa, on the confines of the two states, there was a mart established; and on the Assam side there was a similar mart at Gegunshur, distant four miles from Chouna. An annual caravan then resorted from Lassa to Chouna conducted by about twenty persons, conveying silver bullion to the amount of about one lack of rupees, and a considerable quantity of rock-salt for sale to the Assam merchants at Gegunshur, to which place the latter brought rice, coarse silk cloths, iron, and lac, the produce of Assam, and otter skins, buffaloe horns, pearls, and coral, previously imported from Bengal. A peshcush or offering was then annually sent from the Assam Raja to the grand or Dalai Lama, but no other public intercourse, with the exception of the commerce above described, appears ever to have subsisted between the Tibet and Assam states.

All the royal family of Assam have a right to ascend the throne, except such as have on their body some blemish or mark, whether from disease or accident. In order to preclude the danger of a disputed succession, it was formerly the custom to mark every youth that was not intended for the presumptive heirship by a wound on some conspicuous part, such as the nose or ear; his children, if unblemished, having still a right to the throne. The sovereign and nobility in Assam live in thatched huts, with walls of bamboo mat, supported by saul posts, and built in the fashion of Bengal with arched ridges and mud floors, each apartment being a separate hut. According to the ancient Assamese con-

stitution there are three great officers of state, named Gohaing, which offices are hereditary in three great families. The word appears to be derived from the ancient language of Assam, and the title is peculiar to the royal family. The Bura Boruya is the fourth great officer, and next to him come six functionaries denominated Phukons. By far the greater part of the land in Assam is granted to persons termed Pykes, each of whom is held bound to work gratuitously four months in the year, either for the king or whatever person the royal pleasure substitutes. These people either work for their lord in whatever trade they are skilled, or pay him a composition regulated by custom. These pykes are placed under four ranks of officers, supposed to command one thousand, one hundred, twenty, or ten men, but these numbers are in general only imaginary, and the whole militia a mere rabble, without arms, discipline, or courage. The most important jurisdiction is the province of Camroop, adjacent to Bengal, the greater part of which was wrested from the Moguls early in the reign of Aurengzebe. The rajas are the original petty chieftains of the country, paying a certain tribute, and several of them are Garrows and other unconverted tribes.

The officers under whom the pykes or serfs of the crown are placed, the rajas, and the farmers of the revenue, have charge of the police. It is alleged that the guilty who can bribe, escape with impunity, while the punishments of the convicted poor are atrociously cruel. Capital punishments extend to the whole family of a rebel—parents, sister, wife, and children; it appears probable that it was from this source that the rafts were formerly supplied, which were frequently seen floating down past Goalpara stuck full with human heads. All the domestics are slaves, and they are numerous, every man of rank having several, mostly procured among the necessitous, who mortgage themselves. Some were exported; and before the British predominance, about one hundred of pure caste were annually sold in Bengal. The girls were chiefly bought by professional prostitutes, and cost from twelve to fifteen rupees. A Cooch boy cost 25 rupees, a Kolita 50, slaves of impure tribes were sold to the Garrows. No accurate estimate of the population can be formed, but it is known to be extremely scanty in proportion to the extent of surface, more than three-fourths of which is covered with jungle. The principal places are Jorhaut, Gerghong, Rungpoor, and Gohati; but they scarcely deserve the name of towns, being mere collections of hovels, for in this wretched country, under the old government, there were no shops and but few markets. There are the remains, however, of several remarkable military causeways, which must have been constructed with great labour, but it is not known in what era.

The following are some of the principal castes and tribes of Assam. The Rarhi Brahmins have long obtained the spiritual guidance of the raja and his principal functionaries, but there is a distinct race of Brahmins designated as Assamese. They are vaidikas of Kanoje, and are said to have been introduced from thence by the Cooch raja, Viswa Singh.—Before their arrival there were learned men among the Kolitas, who were gooroos to the people generally.—Many Camroop Brahmins are now settled in Assam, some of whom are said to be learned in Hindoo science, but very few of either class worship the Sactis, or female destructive energies, although some Pundits are skilled in astrology and magic. Some of the Assamese vaidikas have degraded themselves, by becoming Varna, and instructing the impure tribes, a degree of turpitude to which none of the Bengal Vaidikas have as yet submitted.

In the eastern part of Assam Proper, beyond Koliyabar, besides the Khamties, Meerees, and Dophlas, the

most numerous class are the Ahams or governing nation. Those legitimately descended from the companions of Khumtai still retain the principal offices of state, and may be considered the existing nobility. It is generally understood that the Ahams, on their arrival, were not accompanied by any females, but espoused those of the country, and the royal family subsequently frequently intermarried with daughters of the adjacent chiefs; but since the introduction of caste the Ahams have restricted their marriages to their own tribe. The whole have now adopted the language of Bengal as their colloquial dialect, have renounced the eating of beef, and three-fourths have adopted the Brahminical doctrines as taught by the followers of Madhava Acharya. The Kolitas, many of whom are settled in the Rungpoor district, are also a numerous tribe in Assam Proper.—Those who can read are called Kayasthas, and are the religious guides for most of the others, and also for many of the Cooch, with whom they intermarry. They speak the language of Bengal, and have nearly the same customs as the pure Hindoos of that country, only they are still more strict as to eating and drinking. By the Bengalese Brahmins they are considered pure Sudras, and their features are less strongly marked as being of Chinese origin than those of the Cooch, who are very numerous in the Assamese portion of Camroop, more especially in Dorong. There are a considerable number of Heluya keyots who cultivate the ground, and keyots who fish. The first are pure, and assume the title of kaibarta; the latter are impure, but have not adopted the Mahomedan religion, as those in the British district of Rungpoor have done. The Moriyas speak the Bengalese language, but have abandoned themselves to the eating of beef and the drinking of strong liquors. In the province of Camroop there are many Moslems, but so degenerated into heathen superstition, that even the faithful of Goalpara reject their communion.

Nothing satisfactory has as yet been ascertained respecting the ancient history or religion of Assam, the national traditions having a strong tinge of the fabulous. According to these, many ages ago two brothers, named Khunlai and Khuntai, came to a hill named Khorai Khorong, which is situated south from Ghergong, the ancient capital, Khunlai taking with him some attendants, and the god Cheng went towards the south-east; Khuntai remained in the vicinity of the hill Chorai Khorong, and kept in his possession the god Chung, who is still considered by his descendants as their tutelary deity. These two brothers are described as having descended from heaven, and the sovereigns of Assam have always assumed the title of Swerga Raja, which possibly may have meant some part of Tibet or China. It has been conjectured that when these strangers first arrived, the country called Assam proper was governed by twelve petty chiefs, who without opposition submitted to them being so superior in dignity and education; this however is disputed by the Cacharies, who allege that prior to this epoch the country belonged to them. The original territory occupied by Khuntai included two very long islands formed by the windings of the Brahmaputra, together with some of the lands adjacent, on both banks of that great river.

Thirteen princes in regular succession from father to son, continued to govern these dominions with great success according to the rules of their ancestors. They eat beef, pork, and all other foods that shock the piety of Brahminical Hindoos, and drank wine without restraint or remorse of conscience. The Deodhaings were then their spiritual guides, performing worship to the god Chung with great mystery and secrecy, and possessing some books called Bulongji, written in a character which appears on the old coin, and which seems to have a strong affinity to that

of Ava. These books are said to be composed in a language which was formerly spoken at the court of Assam, and are reported to contain a chronicle of their kings, whose names were as follow:

1. Khuntai,
2. Chukapha,
3. Chutaupha,
4. Chubinong,
5. Chuinong,
6. Tukophi,
7. Chhachonong,
8. Chupinong,
9. Chhuchong,
10. Churang,
11. Chujang,
12. Chupkuk,
13. Chukum.

All names strongly resembling the Chinese.

From the beginning of the 17th century the Brahminical doctrines appear to have been gradually encroaching on the old superstitions, and about the middle of that age effected the conversion of the sovereign; since which date the governing party have entirely adopted the language of Bengal, which has become so prevalent, that the original Assamese, spoken so late as the reign of Aurengzebe, is almost become a dead language. Brahmins of various degrees of purity have long been the spiritual guides of the court and of three-fourths of the people; but there remain many impure tribes who still abandon themselves to the eating of beef and the drinking of strong liquors. In the parts adjacent to Bengal there are many Mahomedans; but they have degenerated into heathen superstition, so that they are rejected even by those of Rungpoor. It does not appear that the Christian religion has ever penetrated into this region. In 1793, when Capt. Welsh expelled the Mahamari priest and his rabble from the capital, they retired to Byangmara, south from Seediya.

Although the Assamese have traditions, and it is said books, in the ancient language, detailing their history before the Mahomedan invasion, the information collected is as yet too imperfect to be depended upon. They are first noticed by Mogul authorities in 1638, during the reign of Shah Jehan, when they sailed down the Brahmaputra, and invaded Bengal; but were repulsed by that emperor's officers, and eventually lost some of their own frontier provinces. In the reign of Aurengzebe, his ablest general, Meer Jumlah, advanced from Cooch Bahar to attempt the conquest of Assam, on which occasion he met with no obstacles to his advance, except such as were presented by the nature of the country, until he arrived at the capital, Gergong. When the season of the rains began, the Assamese came out of their hiding-places, and harassed the imperial army, which became very sickly, and the flower of the Afghans, Persians, and Moguls, perished. The rest tried to escape along the narrow causeways through the morasses, but few ever reached Bengal; and the Assamese re-conquered the western provinces, which had been for some time in the possession of the Moguls. After this no more expeditions were attempted against Assam, which the Mahomedans of Hindostan have ever since viewed with singular horror, as a region only inhabited by infidels, hobgoblins, and devils.

Hitherto the Assamese had been a warlike and enterprizing people, and their princes worthy of the government; but after their conversion by the Brahmins the nation sunk into the most abject state of pusillanimity towards foreigners, and into internal turbulence and confusion. About A.D. 1770 the power of the spiritual teachers had acquired such strength, and their insolence had become so intolerable, that the reigning raja, with the view of curbing their pride, burned a building that had been erected contrary to law by one of them named Mahamari, who guided a multitude of the lowest and most ignorant of the people. A rebellion which ensued was suppressed by the energy of the raja, but the insurrection burst forth with increased force under his son and successor Gaurinath, who was driven from the throne by the base adherents of the Mahamari priest, who attempted to fill it with his own nephew. The dethroned raja, however, having placed himself under the protection of Lord Cornwallis, that nobleman, a short time before his departure for

Europe, sent Captain Welsh, in 1793, with 1,100 sepoys, who placed Gaurinath on the throne of his ancestors, and shortly afterwards returned to Bengal.

During the insurrection of the populace under the Mahamari priest, the most horrid excesses were committed, and most of the genuine Assamese men of rank were compelled to fly for refuge to a large island formed by the Brahmaputra. In these disastrous circumstances, the only individual who evinced any courage or enterprize was one of the hereditary counsellors of state named the Bura Gohaing, who, on Captain Welsh's return to Bengal, seized on the whole authority, expelled the Mahamari, and rendered the future rajas of Assam mere pageants under himself. On the death of raja Gaurinath, which he is said to have accelerated, he expelled the lawful heir, but, to save appearances and conciliate the natives, he set up a boy sprung from a spurious branch of the royal family, whom he kept under the strictest seclusion from public affairs.

Many years ago the Bengal government, in consequence of orders from Europe, established a salt agent at Goalpara to monopolize the Assam salt-trade; but after several years' trial, the loss sustained was so great, that the Marquis Cornwallis, who always abhorred petty traffic, ordered it to be suppressed. Mr. Daniel Raush, a respectable Hanoverian, succeeded as principal merchant, but soon found himself creditor to the raja, the Bura Gohaing, and to many other chiefs, who had the address to get possession of his property, in spite of his caution and long experience of their bad faith. In 1796 he quitted his factory at Goalpara, entered Assam, and proceeded to the capital, to endeavour to effect some compromise for his claims, amounting to three lacks of rupees; but on the route he was treacherously assassinated by the raja of Dring's (or Dorong) followers, and had his pinnaces pillaged, and papers destroyed. In 1801 the Marquis Wellesley, compassionating the distress of his widow and destitute family, despatched Comul Lochun Nundy, a native agent, to the court of Assam, to recover the arrears; in furtherance of which object he furnished him with letters to the raja and prime minister explanatory of his mission, and reminding them that they were wholly indebted for the re-establishment of their authority to the British succours under Captain Welsh. The agent Nundy proceeded accordingly to Jorhaut, the existing capital, where he found the raja and his minister ostensibly fully disposed to render him every assistance; but in private obstructing him so effectually, that after being for two years amused with promises and sham trials, he would have returned from that miserable court as empty-handed as he went, had he not on a frontier station recovered ten thousand rupees from a custom-house officer, who had less power or more honesty than his superiors. Indeed Comul Lochun's description of the general anarchy, the injustice exercised, and the horrid cruelties perpetrated by whoever had the power, excites surprise that all the lower classes who had the means did not migrate into the British territories, which were close at hand, and contained immense tracts of unoccupied land.

In 1806 Sir George Barlow made another effort to recover something for Mr. Raush's family, who offered to accept twenty thousand rupees in lieu of their whole claims, but with equally bad success. The raja and his minister on this occasion, among other excuses for their want of punctuality, assigned the total anarchy of their country, and solicited the assistance of the British government to subdue the insurgents and tranquillize their subjects, an undertaking that would have cost one hundred times the amount claimed. After this evasive reply, the absolute inutility of addressing the Assam state on the subject appeared clearly established; yet, to leave nothing untried, in February 1813 another letter was despatched, recalling the circumstance to the ra-

ja's, or rather to his minister's, recollection, and expressing the expectation of the British government that he would effect some equitable settlement. In his reply, received during the course of 1814, the reigning raja acknowledges the receipt of the letter addressed to his brother, the late raja, and then proceeds to describe the unfortunate condition of his country. From the eastward and northward the people of Nora, Khamti, Dophla, and Mahamari, had assembled and invaded his dominions; while on the Bijnee frontier a robber, named Manick Ray, had made repeated inroads, laid waste their pergunnahs, and plundered the Kandar custom-house. The tenour of this reply was as unsatisfactory as the former had been; but as the case did not warrant a stronger interference than remonstrance, all further proceedings on the subject were suspended.

About and prior to this period the western confines of Assam were much infested by bands of freebooters, principally Burkindauzes from Upper Hindostan, who, availing themselves of the local peculiarities of the Bijnee estate, had long been in the practice of waging a system of plunder and incursion on the Assam villages which lie contiguous to the Bijnee frontier. The first regularly organized band of this description consisted of the followers of Gholaum Ali Beg, a Hindostany Mogul, who had been entertained by the Assam rajas to fight against the Mahamari, the inveterate enemies of the Assamese principality. The Bura Gohaing, soon after his usurpation, dismissed Gholaum Ali and his band, and, as they asserted, turned them out of the country without paying them their arrears. On this event Gholaum Ali took up a position on the confines of Bijnee, beyond the Ayi river, from whence he continued to make incursions into Assam. The first attack was on the Kandar chokey, or custom-house, in 1805, at the head of 150 men, when he stormed the post, and carried off such a booty, that on twelve of the gang, who were shortly after seized in Mymunsingh, sixteen hundred rupees were found. From this time forward Gholaum Ali continued to lurk on the confines of Assam and Bijnee, with about eighty followers; not only ravaging the frontier villages of Assam, but occasionally invading the interior, and plundering boats of valuable merchandize as they passed down the Manas river, which separates Bijnee from Assam.

During this period of anarchy, the above adventurer is said to have obtained a kind of sovereignty over sixteen villages on the eastern bank of the Manas, from which he derived a considerable revenue, readily paid by the inhabitants for protection; but he was at length vanquished by another corps of freebooters, led by a Hindostany Rajpoot named Manick Ray, who drove Gholaum Ali into Bootan, and usurped his lucrative post on the frontiers of Bijnee, where he long harboured, doing infinite mischief to that branch of the Goalpara trade navigated on the Manas, and making nightly plundering incursions into Assam. Both he and his predecessor Gholaum Ali Beg, were frequently pursued by the detachment of British Sepoys stationed at Jughigopa, but the orders of government being peremptory against passing the Ayi river, all their efforts were frustrated; and from the Bijnee raja no coercion could be looked for, as he was strongly suspected of sharing in the profits of their depredations. Under these circumstances, the harassed tenantry of the adjacent pergunnahs mostly gave up all idea of having a fixed residence, retiring at night into the British provinces, where they kept their women and children, and re-crossing in the morning, to cultivate their fields in Assam.

Such was the deplorable condition of this fertile country in 1814, at which period the great bulk of the people were extremely anxious to throw off the yoke of the Bura Gohaing, but such on the other hand was his tyranny and their pusillanimity, that his rule was nevertheless acquiesced in with the most unqualified submission. The rightful heir to

the throne at that date was Birjinauth Coomar, who was prevented by the magistrate of Rungpoor from levying war against the usurper, with a body of troops raised in Bengal. It was then generally supposed that the Bura Gohaing, knowing that Birjinauth was the legitimate heir, had disqualified him for the sovereignty, by slitting or otherwise disfiguring one of his ears, in which case he could only reign in the name of one of his children. The next sovereign, Chunder Khant, being dethroned by the Bura Gohaing, fled into the British territories, and Poorindra Singh was placed on the throne, but soon after compelled to follow the route of his predecessor.

The Bura Gohaing then seated himself on the throne; but the time of this old king-maker was now come, for Chunder Khant having repaired to Ava, and procured assistance from the Burmese, returned with an army and compelled the Bura Gohaing to seek refuge in the British territories, where he took up his abode in the vicinity of Jughigopa. In 1821 he re-entered Assam with a body of troops which he had collected in Bootan, but was routed by the Burmese auxiliaries of Chunder Khant, who soon after endeavouring to get rid of his too powerful allies by treachery, was driven from the throne and compelled to repair to Bengal. In June, 1822, Menghee Maha Theluah, the commander-in-chief of the Burmese forces, was proclaimed raja of Assam, the subjugation of which he had now completed, subordinate to the sovereign of Ava.

Now began the never-failing aggressions that invariably take place when a prosperous native power comes in contact with the boundaries of the British dominions, which at last terminated in a rupture about the muddy island of Shapuree, on the coast of Chittagong. A British detachment under Colonel Richards, then entered Assam, and in the course of 1825, expelled the Burmese usurpers and obtained complete possession of the country, which must henceforward be virtually considered an integral portion of the British empire in India. Indeed, without population and with an unknown frontier, this phantom of a kingdom could not for a year exist on its own resources, it must consequently be supported by its conquerors; a civil and military establishment appointed; a fleet of boats maintained on the Brahmaputra, and many other expensive drains created on the Bengal treasury; such is the uncontrollable progress of events in India.—(*T. Buchanan, Sisson, Public MS. Documents, Wade, Klaproth, Comul Lochun Nundy, Lieutenants Burlton, Bedford, Ker, N. Jones, Neufville and Wilcox, Abdul Russool, Gardner, &c.*)

Assodnagur *(Assadnagara, the city of lions.)*—A district in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north-east by the rivers Neera and Beema. Like the rest of the province, it has an irregular surface, but is nevertheless populous and fertile, having many hill streams for the purposes of irrigation. The chief towns are Punderpoor, Khattaow, Nanzereh, and Salpa.

Assèree.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, forty-five miles S. by E. from Damaun. Lat. 19° 47′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E.

Assewan.—A town in the province of Oude about a mile from Meahgunge, and overlooking a small lake. Lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 81° 31′ E.

Assye.—A small town in the province of Berar, twenty-eight miles north from Jaulna. On the 23d September 1803, a battle was fought near this place, between the British army under Gen. Wellesley, consisting of 4,500 men, 2,000 of whom were Europeans, and the combined armies of Dowlet Row Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja, amounting to 30,000. In spite of the disparity of numbers, the British were completely victorious, although with severe loss in proportion to their numbers, *viz.*

Europeans killed	198
Natives ditto.....	230
Europeans wounded.....	442
Natives ditto.....	696
Total.....1,566	

The confederates fled from the field of battle, leaving about 1,200 slain, ninety-eight pieces of cannon, seven standards, their whole camp equipage and a large quantity of ammunition. This victory is the more remarkable, as above 10,000 of Sindia's infantry had been disciplined, and were in part officered by French and other Europeans.

ASTOUN.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eight miles from Teary. Lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E.

ATANGHEERY.—A large village in the Carnatic, on the Marawa coast, district of Madura, where there is a commodious choultry, and a ferry across that branch of the Vagaroo which here disembogues itself into the sea. It stands about twelve miles travelling distance east from Ramnad. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

ATCHERA.—A town of considerable extent in the southern Concan or Bhoonslah country, fifty-six miles north from Goa. Lat. 16° 11′ N., lon. 73° 37′ E. It may be approached by sea within two miles, where the anchorage is in five fathoms with a muddy bottom. It was formerly a place of great reputed sanctity, and a notorious depôt of pirated goods; but in 1818 it was captured by a British detachment, which event completed the conquest of Salsee, a district about 120 miles in circumference, which had belonged to the Peshwa.

ATTAIR.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, and forty-six miles S. E. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 44′ N., lon. 78° 29′ E.

ATTARA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, sixteen miles north from Calinger; lat. 25° 20′ N., lon. 80° 35′ E.

ATTAVEESEE.—A large district in the southern division of the Gujerat province, between the 20th and 21st parallels of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the sea and the city of Surat. It is intersected by many streams flowing from the eastern hills, but not by any river of magnitude. The principal towns are Damaun, Dhurrumpoor and Baunsda. In 1802 this district, which was mortgaged to the British government by the Guicowar, yielded an annual revenue of six and a-half lacks of rupees.

ATTERSOOMBA.—A town in the Gujerat province, twenty-four miles E. from Ahmedahad. Lat. 23° 4′ N., lon. 73° 3′ E.

ATTOCK (*Atac, a limit.*) This town is situated on the east side of the Indus, and to the present day retains the ancient name of Varanas or Benares; but it is more generally known by that of Attock. The old fortress was built by Acber, A.D. 1581. Lat. 33° 56′ E., lon. 71° 57′ E.

About ten miles to the north of Attock the Indus is seen issuing through the mountains by a number of channels, which are reduced to two where it receives the Cabul river. At this point of junction there are many rocks, through which both rivers dash with much impetuosity and noise, but afterwards they collect into one bed, and proceed through the mountains with a deep and narrow stream, between high perpendicular ridges of rock. When it reaches the fort of Attock, the Indus is about 260 yards broad (on the 18th June 1809), but the channel is too deep, and the current too rapid to admit of its being accurately sounded. The banks are of black stone polished by the force of the stream and the white sand it contains, so as to shine like marble. In the midst are the famous rocks of Jemalia and Kemalia, but the reported whirlpool does not rage in the month of June.

The modern fort of Attock (the residence of the Afghan government in 1809) stands on a low hillock on the east bank. Its figure is that of a parallelogram, having the shortest faces (those parallel to the river) about 400 yards long, and other sides about double that extent. The walls are of polished stone; but although

the place makes a handsome show, it is commaded by a rough hill, from which it is only separated by a ravine, and being situated on a slope almost the whole of the interior, and the reverse of the walls on their faces, are visible from the opposite side. The town was formerly considerable, but is very much decayed, having been since 1818 in the possession of Runjeet Singh, the Seik Rajah of Lahore. On the Afghan side of the river opposite to Attock is a small village distinguished by a kind of fort erected by Nadir Shah, and a fine aqueduct made by some former chief of the Khuttick tribe to irrigate the contiguous lands. Notwithstanding the rapidity of the river here, it is easily passed, both in boats and on the inflated hides of oxen.

It is remarkable that the three great invaders of Hindostan, Alexander, Timour, and Nadir Shah, in three distant ages, and with views and talents extremely different, advanced by the same route with hardly any deviation. Alexander had the merit of discovering the way: after passing the mountains he encamped at Alexandria Paropamisana, on the same site with the modern city of Candahar, and having subdued or conciliated the natives on the north west bank of the Indus, he crossed the river at Taxila, now Attock, the only place where the stream is so tranquil that a bridge can be thrown over it.—(*Elphinstone, Rennell, Wilford, Dr. Robertson, &c.*)

Attowah Peeplea.—A town, in the province of Malwa, twenty-four miles S.E. from Dewass. In 1820, it contained 500 houses and was the head of a pergunnah; lat. 22° 48′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Attyah.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Jelalpoor, forty-four miles N.W. by N. from Dacca. Lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 89° 48′ E.

Auggur.—A large town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Sindia, forty miles N. by E. from Oojein; lat 23° 43′ N., lon. 76° 1′. This place is beautifully situated on a rocky eminence, between two lakes or tanks 1,598 feet barometrical measurement above the level of the sea. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and has a well-built ghurry or native fortification within. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah, and contained five thousand houses; but with the exception of one street, the interior, although of considerable extent, is a mere aggregation of mud buildings.—(*Malcolm, Fullarton, &c.*)

Augur.—This is the name of a modern geographical subdivision of that portion of the province of Lahore situated between the Indus and Hydaspes; but little is known respecting its topography, except that, according to native reports, it contains several salt mountains, with which substance the soil of this quarter of Hindostan is every where impregnated. The division of Augur lies between the thirty-second and thirty-third degrees of north latitude, has the Indus to the west, and Sinde Sager to the south, is thinly peopled, and comprehends no town of note. In some old maps it is denominated Ghepp or Dun Ghepp.

Aul.—A town in the province Orissa, district of Cuttack, fifty mi from the town of Cuttack in a nor eastern direction. In 1813 the tribute paid by the proprietor was 26,680 rupees; his remaining profit was estimated at 15,000 rupees per annum. This is a valuable property, and although only tributary, is situated within the Mogulbundy, or that portion of the district subject to the British regulations. In extreme dimensions it is reckoned twenty miles from north to south, by about ten from east to west.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

Aumnier.—A large and populous town situated in the province of Gundwana, and on the river Wurda, which is here in January a very small stream and easily passed. It runs over a rocky bottom, and forms some small cascades. Lat. 21° 25′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E., fifty miles N. by W. from the city of Nagpoor.

AURUNGABAD.

A large province of the Deccan, situated principally between the eighteenth and twenty-first degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Gujerat, Candeish, and Berar; on the south by Bejapoor and Beeder; to the east it has Berar and Hyderabad; and on the west the Indian ocean. In length it may be estimated at 300 miles, by 160 the average breadth. The courses of the rivers Neera and Beema mark its separation on the south-west from the contiguous province of Bejapoor.

This province is also known by the names of Ahmednuggur and Dowletabad; the first having been its capital during the existence of the Nizam Shahy dynasty, and the latter during a short-lived dynasty established by Mallek Amber, an Abyssinian, from 1600 to 1635. Aurungabad was partially subdued under the reign of Acber, from which period its limits were in a constant state of fluctuation, until that of Shah Jehan in 1634, when Dowletabad, the capital, being taken, the whole country was transformed into a soubah of the Mogul empire, then at its zenith. On this event the seat of government was removed from Dowletabad to the neighbouring town of Gurka, which becoming the favourite residence of Aurungzebe while viceroy of the Deccan, recived the name of Aurungabad, which appellation was subsequently communicated to the province. At present the principal modern territorial and political subdivisions, beginning from the north-west, are the following, *viz.*

1. Jowaur.
2. Callianee.
3. Bombay.
4. Baglana.
5. Singumnere.
6. Dowletabad.
7. Jalnapoor.
8. Bheer.
9. Futtehabad.
10. Perraindah.
11. Sholapoor.
12. Ahmednuggur.
13. Jooneer.

The surface of this province is very irregular, and in general mountainous, particularly towards the western ghauts, where the hills attain a great altitude. The tract to the east of the ghauts, including much the larger portion of the soubah, is also an elevated region, forming part of the table-land of the Deccan, rarely less than 1,800 feet above the level of the sea, and frequently much more. The territory consequently abounds with natural fortresses and strong holds, which enabled the Maharattas, whose native country it is, to give such infinite trouble to Aurengzebe and his generals. Rice is the grain chiefly cultivated; the other vegetable productions are much the same as in other parts of the Deccan. The gardens and fields in the immediate neighbourhood of the villages are very generally enclosed by hedges of the prickly pear and the milk plant, the first of which forms an excellent fence. The climate is particularly favourable for the production of European fruits, which arrive here at a greater degree of perfection than in any other quarter of Hindostan, more especially the peach, strawberry, and a very fine variety of the grape, of a large size and cylindrical form. The nectarine has been planted and borne fruit at Seroor, near Poona. The figs are delicious, and the melon, which is universally reared, rivals in flavour the choicest fruit of an English green-house. The oranges are large, but inferior to those of the Silhet district, and the unrivalled orange of Daoudeaundy in Tipera, in which last the pulp adheres to a very thick skin only by fibres.

Aurungabad possesses no rivers of magnitude, although it contains the sources of many, such as the Beema, Neera, and Godavery, which do not swell to any considerable dimensions until they quit its limits. On the banks of the two first horses for the Maharatta cavalry were formerly reared in great numbers; but though

a hardy breed, they are neither strong nor handsome, although they easily supported the light weight of their predatory riders. The bazars of the cities and larger towns have a sufficiently animated appearance; but in the smaller communities, the dwellings being generally without windows, or other apertures towards the streets, and roofed with flat earthen terraces, present scarcely any thing to the eye but dreary masses of dead wall. The religious edifices are distinguished by various architectural peculiarities from the old temples usually seen in Upper Hindostan, as well as from those more to the south; the porticoes are almost universally large, and occasionally nearly as large as the whole sanctuary. In some towns the pagoda rises in the form of a twelve-sided pyramid, divided into compartments, each ornamented with a mythological device in bas-relief; while in others, where the form is quadrangular, the roof terminates in a huge elevation of a cupola shape.

Much the larger portion of this province, and almost the entire seacoast, having long been possessed by the Maharattas, fair maritime commerce never flourished, piracy by sea and plundering by land having always been their favourite employment, until coerced by the strong arm of the British government. Until A.D. 1818 three-fourths of Aurungabad were subject to the Peshwa; and the remainder (with some exceptions) to the Nizam; but since that eventful year, and the overthrow of the former, nearly the whole has, directly or indirectly, become subordinate to the British nation, with reservation of the rights of certain feudatory chieftains, whose territories will be noticed under their respective heads.

The population of this province, and more especially of the north-eastern quarter, is in proportion much below that of the best British districts, the proportion of religious being about one Mahomedan to twenty Hindoos. The Maharatta language is principally used; but there are also various local dialects in common use, while Hindostany and Persian are current among the higher classes; the first in conversation, and the last in the revenue records. These last (the nobility) have now fallen, probably never to rise again; but no doubt the great majority of the humbler classes must, in the course of time, have their condition ameliorated by the introduction of British laws and institutions. It is a very remarkable circumstance, however, that although this province has been the grand cradle of the predatory bands that for more than a century past desolated Hindostan, and for two years (1817 and 1818) had been the seat of external invasion and internal warfare, yet in 1820 no part of the whole Deccan, or Southern India, exhibited such an appearance of undisturbed tranquillity and repose. Crimes of violence were rare, and highway robbery so uncommon, that it was said a single armed man might carry a lack of rupees in perfect security from the Krishna to the Godavery.—(*Fullarton, Wilks, Ferishta, &c.*)

Aurungabad *(the place of the throne)*.—The capital of the province above described, situated in lat. 19° 54′ N., lon. 75° 33′ E. This city, originally named Gurka, stands a few miles from Dowletabad, which being taken from the transient dynasty of Mallek Amber, in 1634, the Moguls removed their head-quarters to Gurka; which having subsequently become the favourite residence of Aurungzebe, it received a more sonorous appellation. It continued for some time a metropolis, after the modern Nizams became independent of Delhi, until they found its vicinity to the Poona Maharattas inconvenient, and migrated to Hyderabad. It is still within the limits of the Nizam's dominions, but, like many other famous cities of Hindostan, is greatly fallen from its ancient grandeur, presenting the usual symptoms of a deserted capital, a scanty population among extensive ruins.

The river Kowlah, a mountain stream, over which there are two substantial bridges, separates the city from its principal suburb, the Begum Poora; on the north side is marshy ground of some extent, in which rice is cultivated; and on the left, entering by the Delhi gate, is a considerable tank, overgrown with rank aquatic plants, from both of which unwholesome exhalations arise. The central parts of the city are also very low, indeed almost on a level with the marshy ground. For two-thirds of the year the winds here are from the W.S.W., while easterly winds prevail in November, December, and January. The range of the thermometer, during these three months, is from 50° to 86°, during the twenty-four hours the alternations of heat and cold being as great as they are sudden. During the hot months the range of the thermometer is from 78° to 100° Fahrenheit. The average supply of rain may be taken at thirty-six inches; but for the three monsoons prior to 1826 there had not been even twenty-one inches. Intermittent fevers are here prevalent at all seasons. The military cantonments stand on a rocky plain about a mile to the south-west of the city, and is reckoned healthy, while the city itself is known to be the reverse. Tropical fruits of every description are produced here in abundance, the grapes and oranges being scarcely inferior to those of Europe.

Aurungabad is situated in a hollow, and when approached from the north-east, its white domes and minars are seen rising from below amidst a grove of trees. Its locality has been particularly favourable for ensuring an abundant supply of excellent water, which is brought in stone conduits from the neigbouring hills, and distributed through earthen pipes to the numerous stone reservoirs in every quarter, from some of which fountains spring up in the centre. The main street or bazar is nearly two miles long, of good width, and resembling in its architecture the principal street of Oojein; at one extremity is the spacious quadrangle of the chowk, and at a short distance a handsome modern market, named the shahgunge. The ruins of Aurengzebe's palace still cover an extensive space, but they are rapidly disappearing. The celebrated mausoleum, erected by his order to the memory of his daughter, has some resemblance to the Tauje at Agra, but in every respect less imposing. Its domes are of white marble, and clustered like those of the Tauje, but inferior in size, fulness, and splendour, and throughout the whole there is a comparative poverty in the materials; in many places stucco is substituted for marble, and the exquisite mosaic bas-reliefs are wanting. The fakeer's tomb is an insignificant structure, and chiefly remarkable for its fine reservoirs, with their numerous *jet d'eaus*, artificial cascades, and water mills. Connected with this tomb is a mosque, and many other mosques are dispersed over the town, but none of remarkable structure.

In the bazar, which is extensive, various kinds of commodities, European as well as native, particularly silks, are exposed for sale; and the population, although much reduced, is still considerable. In 1820, Rajah Govind Buksh (the brother of Rajah Chundoo Laul, the prime minister at Hyderabad) resided at Hyderabad as governor of the northern portion of the Nizam's dominions in this quarter. The population of Aurungabad gradually decreased until 1815, when without any apparent cause the city began to revive. In 1825 it contained about 60,000 persons, and covered a spot of ground about seven miles in circumference. Travelling distance from Poona 186 miles; from Bombay, by Poona, 284; from Hyderabad 295; from Madras 647; from Delhi 750; and from Calcutta 1,022 miles.—(*Fullarton, Calcutta Medical Transactions, Wilks, the Duke of Wellington, Fitzclarence, &c.*)

Autghur.—This place stands in the midst of a wild and woody country, about fourteen miles N.W. from

the city of Cuttack. On the north it is bounded by the tributary state of Durpun, and on the west by the fortress of Tigria, and its extreme dimensions are fifteen miles from east to west, by twelve from north to south. Owing to the quantity and density of the jungle, the country is reckoned very unhealthy, and in 1813 the annual tribute paid by the zemindar was only 6,868 rupees. The articles produced are rice, and various sorts of grain, tobacco, cotton, sugarcane, and oil.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

Autmallick.—A talook in the province of Orissa opposite to the Boad zemindarry, thus named because it was formerly covered by eight persons in succession. It consists almost entirely of hills and jungles, and in the triennial settlement of 1818 was assessed at only 800 sicca rupees.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Autoor.—A town in the Hyderabad province, twenty-five miles west by south from the city of Hyderabad. Lat. 17° 17′ N., lon. 78° 10′ E.

AVA AND THE BURMESE EMPIRE.

An extensive and once powerful empire in the south-eastern extremity of Asia, where, until the late war, it occupied, either directly or influentially, almost half of the region described in maps as India beyond the Ganges. At present the Burmese empire, strictly speaking, is limited to the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu; Arracan, half of Martaban, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and the Mergui isles having been ceded to the British government, and Junk Ceylon recovered by the Siamese, while Assam and all the adjacent petty states have been liberated from its yoke. How far its influence now extends to the east of the Martaban or Saluen river is uncertain, but several of the Shan tribes are known to be tributary, and also to furnish on emergencies a contingency of troops. On the north, Ava is bounded by Assam and the adjacent petty states; on the south by Siam, the sea, and the British district of Martaban; to the west it has the sea, Arracan, and Bengal; and on the east, Siam and the Shan nations. In length, including tributaries, it may be roughly estimated at 560 miles (from lat. 16° to lat. 24° N.) by an average breadth of about 300 miles. This is given merely as an approximation, for beyond the banks of the Irawady little is known respecting the interior. The genuine Burmese designate themselves Mranmas, and their country Mranma.

North from Pegu, on both sides of the Irawady, belongs to the Burmese, who for two centuries have been the most powerful nation in this part of Asia. By Europeans their country is generally called Ava, from a corrupt pronunciation of Aénwa, the vulgar name of the capital, and the names Mrama, Burma, Birma, and Brahma, often given to the nation, are probably all corruptions of Marama used by the people of Arracan. The principal rivers are the Irawady, the Kienduem, the Saluen or Martaban river, the Pegu river, and the Lokiang. At present the only seacoast possessed by the Burmese is in the districts of Rangoon and Basseen, at the southern extremity of Pegu. In Ava Proper the difference between the east and west banks of the Irawady is remarkable; the east being barren, arid, and parched up, especially in the neighbourhood of the petroleum wells; whilst the west is fertile and well supplied with moisture, and yields in abundance almost every tropical production. The country between Prome and Tongho is hilly, without navigable rivers or practicable roads, and almost destitute of fresh water.

The seasons in Ava, which resemble those of Bengal, may be divided into three, the cold, the hot, and the rainy. The first begins in December and lasts until February, during which time the morning fogs are dense, and last until near ten o'clock, when the power of the sun's rays dissipates them; the hot weather follows and lasts until May, when the rains set in,

and pour without interruption until October. Judging from the appearance and vigour of the natives, the climate must be very healthy. The intense heat which precedes the commencement of the rains is short, and incommodes but very little. Exclusive of the delta formed by the mouths of the Irawady, there is very little alluvial soil in the Birman dominions. The soil of Pegu is remarkably fertile, and produces as abundant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Further north the country becomes irregular and higher; but at present the Burmese territories south of the capital do not contain a single elevation sufficiently great to deserve the name of mountain. The plains and vallies near the rivers are exceedingly fertile, yielding abundance of wheat, and the various small grains and legumes that grow in Hindostan. The sugar-cane, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits are all indigenous. In a district lying to the north of Amarapura, named Palongmiou, the tea plant grows, but its leaf is very inferior to the article imported from China, and is seldom used but as a pickle. Besides the teak tree, which grows in most parts of Ava, there is almost every description of timber known in India.

According to former accounts the kingdom of Ava abounded with minerals, but a more close inspection of the country has not confirmed that report. In the mountainous parts, towards the frontiers of China, mines of gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, amethysts, garnets, chrysolites, and jasper are said to abound, but these precious stones do not appear ever to have formed a considerable article of export or of traffic in the bazar. Marble of an excellent texture, and susceptible of the highest polish, is found a few miles from Amarapura, where it is monopolized by the government, and employed in fabricating the innumerable images of Gaudma scattered over the country. The most remarkable product of the Burmese empire is petroleum oil, an article of universal use throughout the provinces, and yielding a large revenue to the government. Neither Pegu nor Ava are rich in metallic ores, with the exception of tin and antimony. The consumption of iron is principally supplied from the great mountain of Pouka, on the east side of the Irawady, and near the lat. of 21° north. Besides petroleum, the other mineral saline productions are coal, saltpetre, soda, and culinary salt. The mountains about twenty miles to the north of the city of Ava, and from 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, contain many plants common to the Himalaya chain. The climate, however, of Ava Proper is not very favourable, the rains being seldom sufficiently abundant, so that without artificial irrigation, all the neighbouring countries are more productive of grain.

The great internal traffic is that which subsists between the southern and northern provinces, in which the first sends the necessaries of life, rice, salt, and fish to Ava, receiving in return terra japonica, palm, sugar, petroleum oil, onions, tamarinds, limestone, paper, lacquered-ware, orpiment, gold, wrought silk and cottons, brass-ware, coarse cutlery, weapons, and vermilion. Formerly the imports consisted of Madras piece goods, but within the last five years these, as well as Bengal piece goods, have given way to British piece goods, principally cheap, coloured handkerchiefs and book muslins, long cloths, and cotton cambrics. The other imports are some Madras and Bengal cottons, a small quantity of English woollens, iron-ware, sugar, dates, cocoa-nuts and tobacco. Formerly by far the largest export was teak timber, principally to Calcutta and Madras, the value then estimated at five lacks of rupees annually, independent of what was exported coast-ways from Basseen, and another large trading place called Lewatna, on the same river. The teak of Pegu has hitherto been all procured from the lower districts, because more accessible, which is probably the chief cause of its ac-

knowledged inferiority to the teak of Malabar. A considerable trade is said to exist between Amarapura and Yunan in China. The principal export from Ava is cotton, which is transported up the Irawady in large boats as far as Bamoo, where it is bartered at the common jee or mart with the Chinese merchants, and conveyed by the latter into the celestial empire; as also amber, ivory, and gems, betel-nut, and edible nests brought from the Eastern islands. The returns from China are raw and wrought silks, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hardware. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have not any coin, silver in bullion and lead being the current monies of the country.

The Burmese empire is subdivided into provinces and districts of very unequal magnitude and importance, each governed by a viceroy or military chief, called Maywoon, aided in his functions by one or more subordinate officers, named Raywoon, according to the exigencies of his command. These form the lotoo or council, in which is vested the power of life and death, for, although appeal to Amarapura is permitted, the difficulty and expense render the privilege nugatory. These governors and military commandants have no salaries from the crown, but are allowed certain fees on law-suits, a per-centage on taxes, and may levy and extort contributions at their pleasure. When the king makes war, or the kingdom is invaded, the Maywoon provides the quota of men at which the province is assessed, and exacts extraordinary taxes for their equipment and support.

Besides these there is a subordinate class of functionaries named meuthogies, or civil chiefs, of whom there is one in every pergunnah, town, and village (like the patells of the Deccan) in the empire. This office is generally hereditary, and the possessors of it have great influence in the management of their respective quarters, as through them the taxes are collected and the viceroy's orders promulgated. They also hold courts for the trial of petty causes, and derive considerable emolument from the fees they are authorized to levy, and, owing to their utility at home, are usually exempted from military service. In 1825, as the British army advanced, these useful functionaries returned from the woods and jungles into which they had been driven with their people, and were reinstalled in their former departments, which they administered so effectually, that during the long halt of the British army at Prome, surrounded by an immense and agitated population, only one instance of capital punishment took place, and that a conviction of robbery accompanied with murder.

The Burmese administration of justice is at once rude, unskilful, violent, relentless, and rapacious. There is no species of pain or penalty, even death, from which exemption may not be purchased by a bribe, the highest bidder being sure to gain his cause in a civil court. In liquidation of fines, wives, daughters, and sons are sold and mortgaged. A minute register of every inhabitant above three years of age is kept, containing, from superstitious motives, the day of their nativity, their names and ages, as well as those of their wives and children, that all and each might be rendered responsible in their persons for their relatives. Persons, when they have been injured or aggrieved, are fined, even years afterwards, for not having complained, having thereby defrauded the government and its officers of the fees and profits that would have accrued from the investigation. On the 7th February 1817 seven persons were brought out for execution at Rangoon. The first was fired at four times without being hit, and was in consequence declared to be supernaturally protected, and pardoned; the second was shot dead, and the other five beheaded. It was subsequently ascertained that the supernatural culprit had paid the governor a large fine.

The names of the most remarkable towns are Ava, the ancient, and now again the modern capital; Amarapura, the late capital; Monchaboo, the birth-place of Alompra; Pegu, Rangoon, Basseen, Syriam, Negrais, Pagahm and Chagain, Prome and Tongho. The two last are reckoned the keys of the Burmese capital, yet might be suddenly captured by a handful of Europeans ascending the river in a steam-boat. Every town on the river, according to its size and means, is obliged to keep and man a gilt or common war-boat, of which the king can still muster above 200, carrying from forty to fifty men. As they live chiefly on free quarters, and are consequently in a state of hostility with the peasantry, they are violent, audacious, and prompt to execute any atrocity, however unjust and cruel, and are, in fact, the most loyal and efficient portion of the Burmese military establishment. The state boats belonging to the king and queen are gilt all over, the oars and paddles not excepted. According to Burmese notions, there are thirty-seven motions of the paddle.

Five months' uninterrupted tranquillity, while quartered at Prome, gave the British officers an opportunity of forming a more intimate acquaintance with the manners and customs of the Burmese than had hitherto been attained, all prior intercourse having been carried on under surveillance. Notwithstanding the Birman's cruel and sanguinary habits during war, he evinces in his private and domestic habits little of the ferocious arrogance that has rendered him the terror of surrounding nations. At home he is lazy and averse to work, compelling his wife to toil worse than a beast of burthen, while he passes his time in idleness, smoking, and chewing betel. His wants are few and simple; rice and a little fish, pickled and putrid, forms his daily repast, and water his drink, and he seems happy and contented, bearing all kinds of oppression with apathy and indifference, and kind to every body but his wife and daughter, both of whom he works like slaves, and prostitutes for money to strangers. Fortunately for these miserable beings—and females are miserable in all similar stages of society—the latter custom is not attended with the slightest degradation, the victims on their return being regarded rather as objects of envy than of pity, from the little stock of wealth they bring along with them.

The Indian nations east of the Ganges, following the maxims of the Chinese, have always been more cautious in their intercourse with foreign states than those of the west. Indeed the courts of Ava and Pekin resemble each other in many respects, and in none more than their vanity and pride, which often manifests itself in a most ludicrous manner. Like the sovereign of China, his majesty of Ava acknowledges no equal. Boa, or emperor, is a title which Minderajee had assumed; the sovereign of China is styled Oodee Boa, or emperor of Oodee or China. Although deficient in every thing that can render a state formidable, this sovereign and his functionaries are (or rather were) quite inflated with the idea of their own importance, and presented the spectacle of a court at once feeble and arrogant. In Ava all rank is official, emanating from, continued by, or annihilated by the will or caprice of the sovereign. The lowest Birman may aspire to the highest dignity; the most elevated may in one day be degraded to a level with the lowest of people, and esteem himself fortunate if he carries his head along with him. This want of a hereditary nobility, to give stability to the government and its institutions, has long preserved it in a state of anarchy, the victim of sudden and sanguinary revolutions.

The labouring classes of Ava and Pegu have been reckoned by a competent judge (Mr. Crawfurd) superior in point of physical strength and activity to any of the eastern Asiatics, the Chinese excepted; but he thought the mass of intelligence pos-

sessed by them greatly inferior to that of the Hindostanies, or any nation of western Asia, and even worse governed and less civilized than the Siamese and Cochin-Chinese. This may be attributed to the absence of a hereditary nobility, wealthy land proprietors, and of an elevated and intelligent hierarchy. Without these, knowledge cannot accumulate; nothing is permanently added to the prior fund, which is the natural check to misgovernment. According to a Burmese account, the provinces south of Prome contain 160 townships, and about 2,080 villages, with 175,000 houses, in each of which, according to the Burmese custom, from one to four families reside. Assuming two families, and five to a family, this estimate would give a population of 1,750,000, or about forty to the square mile. The area of the provinces south of Prome occupies about one-third of the whole empire, which, supposing it peopled in the same ratio, would give a total population of 3,500,000 persons (including 500,000 Carians), which is probably not very remote from the truth. It appears to have been the usual practice of the Burmese, and indeed of the ultra Gangetic nations generally, to transport the natives of their conquered provinces to another quarter, and repeople them with Burmese.

There is no doubt the population and resources of the Burmese empire had been greatly exaggerated by former travellers, and more especially by Colonel Symes, as may be inferred from the following statistical facts recently acquired. The three towns of Amarapura, Ava, and Sakaing, with the districts attached, contain an area of 283 square miles, composing by far the best cultivated and most populous portion of the empire. It is nearly exempted from taxation, being favoured through ancient and established usage, to the detriment of the rest of the country. According to the public registers, the above space contains 50,000 houses, and each house estimated at seven inhabitants, which would furnish an aggregate of 354,200 persons. Ava city certainly does not contain 30,000 inhabitants, and in population, wealth, industry, and trade, is greatly below Bankok, the capital of Siam. The other large towns, such as Rangoon, Prome, Monchaboo, &c., not above a dozen in number, do not contain more than 10,000 inhabitants each; indeed, in 1827, Rangoon was found only to contain between 8,000 and 9,000 by an actual census.

One-tenth of the produce is exacted as the authorized due of government, and one-tenth is the amount of the king's duty on all foreign goods imported. The revenue arising from customs on imports are mostly taken in kind; a small part converted into cash, and the rest distributed in lieu of salaries to the various departments of the state. Money, except on the most pressing exigencies, is never disbursed from the royal coffers. To one man the fees of an office are allowed; to another a station where certain imposts are collected; a third has land granted in proportion to the importance of his employment. On the other hand, every officer of government, from the highest to the lowest, according to his rank and station, makes an annual fixed present to the king.

The Burmese may be described as a nation of soldiers, every man in the kingdom being liable to be called on for his military services. In their usual mode of warfare, a Burmese rarely meets his enemy in the open field. Instructed and trained from his youth in the construction and defence of stockades, their wars prior to 1824 had been a series of conquests, all the adjacent nations having fallen before them. With reference to mere animal strength, a Hindostany sepoy is certainly not a match for a Burmese; but, alarmed and confounded by the steady advance of the European soldiers close up to their strongest works without firing a shot, distracted by the showers of Congreve rockets, shrapnell

shells, and bombs, and astonished by the smoking phenomenon of a steam boat, they fell before superior knowledge and energy. A Birman soldier has not even the consolation of seeing his general partaking his dangers, for after giving direction what to do, this cautious hero usually leaves the stockade. The investment of the Sheo Dagon pagoda at Rangoon, was the boldest undertaking of the Burmese during the late war. There they advanced within point-blank musket range, and burrowing like rabbits, bore a hot fire of shells, bombs, and shrapnells for six days. Their defence of Donabew also entitles them to much praise. Our late ambassador, however, denies their chiefs either courage, intelligence, or public spirit, and insists that the genius of the Burmese institutions, civil and military, are quite hostile to the generation of martial habits and feelings among the mass of the people. Indeed, he did not hesitate to consider them, when compared with the fighting tribes of Hindostan, a people eminently tame and unwarlike.

In their features the Burmese bear a much nearer resemblance to the Chinese than to the natives of Hindostan. They are not tall in stature, but are active and athletic, and have a very youthful appearance, from the custom of plucking the beard instead of using the razor. Both sexes colour their teeth, eye-lashes, and the edges of their eye-lids with black, and in their food, compared with the Hindostanies, are gross and uncleanly. The culinary system of the Burmese and other Indo-Chinese nations, is nevertheless much more agreeable to a European palate than that of the natives of Hindostan. Some of their ragouts, however, are peculiar, one of which, sent with others by the king to the members of the late embassy by way of refreshment after a boat-race, was a dish of fried crickets. Although their religion forbids the slaughter of animals, yet they apply the interdiction only to those that are domesticated. All game is eagerly sought after, and in many places publicly sold. Reptiles, such as lizards, guanos, and snakes, constitute a part of the subsistence of the lower classes. To strangers they grant the most liberal indulgence, and if they chance to shoot at and kill a fat bullock, it is ascribed to accident. The Burmese burn their dead, and place implicit faith in talismans, auguries, and judicial astrology. The first are usually written on sheet gold or silver, and inserted under the skin of the person to be protected. All the Birman soldiers are tattooed, but the Siamese consider the practice as barbarous. Among this people the sitting posture is the most respectful, but strangers are apt to attribute to insolence, what in their view is a mark of deference. The British troops found the Burmese extravagantly fond of spirits, and they soon acquired the language of their conquerors sufficiently to ask for a glass of English water (gin) and brandy; but although their country abounds with cattle, they make no use whatever of their milk.

In this empire every thing belonging to the king has the word "shoe," or gold, prefixed to it; even his majesty's person is never mentioned but in conjunction with that precious metal. When a subject means to affirm that the king has heard anything, he says, "it has reached the golden ears;" he who has obtained admittance to the royal presence has been at the "golden feet;" and otr of roses is described as being grateful to the "golden nose." The Birman sovereign is sole proprietor of all the elephants within his dominions, and here male elephants are preferred to female, which is the reverse of what takes place in Hindostan. The henza, the symbol of the Burmese nation, as the eagle was of the Roman empire, is a species of wild fowl called the Brahminy goose. Men of high rank have their barges drawn by war boats, it being thought inconsistent with their dignity to sit in the same boat with common watermen. Not-

withstanding the well-formed arches still to be seen in many of the ancient temples, Burmese workmen can no longer turn them: which shews how easily an art once well known may be lost. Masonry in the latter ages has been much neglected; buildings of wood, thatch, and bamboos, having superseded the more solid structures of brick and mortar. No chief, however, will enter the house of an inferior, or even of an equal, for to do so implies a diminution of dignity. The king never enters the house of his brother, although he is often seen walking arm in arm with him in the court before his dwelling.

The Pali language constitutes at the present day the sacred text of Ava, Pegu, and Siam; the Birman dialect has borrowed the Sanscrit alphabet, in which it is constantly written. But, notwithstanding this appearance of intimacy, the missionaries, in a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Burmese language, could scarcely discover three genuine Sanscrit words. Many syllables, however, according with those of the Chinese colloquial dialect are to be found, and the language adopts two of the four Chinese tones. The Sanscrit language is here found arrested in its progress eastward, and constrained to lend its alphabet to do little more than clothe and express another system, said, by those who have studied it most closely, to be of mere syllabic origin, and retaining tones completely foreign to the Sanscrit system. The character in common use throughout Ava and Pegu is a round Nagari, derived from the square Pali, or religious text, formed of circles and segments of circles variously disposed, written from left to right, and usually engraved on palmira leaves. Every place of note in the kingdom has two names, one in the vulgar tongue, and the other in the sacred Pali. The number of dialects spoken in the Birman empire is said to exceed eighteen.

The most remarkable antiquities are to be found at Pagahm, Chagaing, Sanku, and Anglewa. The ruins in best preservation, and largest in extent, are those of Pagahm, which extend twelve miles along the bank of the Irawady, and five inland. Many of the temples there are still entire, and exhibit a superior style, far beyond the utmost efforts of modern Burmese architects. In one of the old temples at Pagahm, Brahminical images of Vishnu, Siva, and Hunimaun were found, when visited by the embassy in 1827, besides many inscriptions in the Deva-nagari character. In one spot, where the temple of the Arracan image of Gaudma stands, the late King Minderaja Praw had collected 260 monumental inscriptions, some on white marble, but the greater number on sandstone, mostly however referring to the founding of some temple or monastery.

The laws of the Burmese, like their religion, are Hindoo; indeed there is no separating their laws from their religion. Their code they name Derma Sath, or Sastra, which is one of Menu's commentaries. Their system of jurisprudence, like that of the Chinese, provides specifically for almost every species of crime that can be committed, and trial by ordeal and imprecation are permitted. They are not shackled by any prejudices of caste, restricted to hereditary occupations, or forbidden to associate with strangers, as are the Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion. A knowledge of letters is very generally diffused, and many can both read and write the vulgar tongue; but few understand the scientific or more sacred volumes. All kioums or monasteries are also seminaries for the education of youth, to which the surrounding inhabitants may send their children, where they are educated gratis by the Rahaans or monks, who neither buy, sell, or accept money. Their year is divided into twelve months, of twenty-nine and thirty days alternately, which they rectify by an intercalation every third year. They reckon the month from the beginning to the full moon, after which they recede by retrogressive

enumeration until the month is finished. The week is divided into seven days, as in Hindostan and Europe. The Christian year 1795 corresponds with the Birman year 1157, and with the Hejira of 1209. Througout Ava, and other states to the eastward, the word *lack* signifies only ten thousand.

Buddha (of whom the Burmese are sectaries, as the Hindoos are of Brahma) is admitted by Hindoos of all descriptions as the ninth Avatar, or descent of the deity in the character of preserver; but the religion of the Buddhists differs greatly from that of the Brahmins, the gods of the Brahmins being in a state of constant activity, pervading and animating all nature, while those of the Buddhists remain quiescent, and do not concern themselves about human affairs. The latter teach that from time to time men of surpassing piety and self-denial have appeared on earth, and from their singular worth have after death been transferred to a state of supreme bliss, or absence of pain. These saints, after reforming the world during their lifetime, and by their superior sanctity acquiring the power of performing miracles, are imagined after death to possess a command over the living, and it is they who are the direct objects of worship with the Buddhists. Buddha, during his incarnation, reformed the doctrines of the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle or depriving any thing of life. His birth-place is supposed to have been Gaya in Bahar. Gautama or Gautom, according to the Hindoos of India, and Gaudma among the ultra-Gangetic nations, is said to have been a saint and philosopher, and is believed by the Birmans to have flourished 2,300 years ago. He taught in the Indian schools the heterodox religion and philosophy of Buddha. The image that represents Buddha is called Gaudma, which is a commonly received appellation for Buddha himself. This image is a primary object of worship in all countries (Assam and Cassay excepted), situated between Bengal and China. The sectaries of Buddha contend with those of Brahma for antiquity, and are certainly in the aggregate, under various denominations, much more numerous. The Cingalese of Ceylon are Buddhists of the purest source, and the Burmese acknowledge to have received their religion from that island. Sir Wm. Jones determines the period when Buddha appeared on earth to have been 1,014 years before the birth of our Saviour.

The Burmese believe in the metempsychosis, and that having undergone a certain number of migrations, their souls will, at last, either be received into their mount Olympus, on the mountain Meru, or be sent to suffer torments in a place of divine punishment. Notwithstanding the Burmese are followers of Buddha, they greatly reverence the Brahmins, and acknowledge their superiority in science over their own priests. The king and chief officers have always in their houses some of these domestic sages, who supply them with astrological advice. But the natives of Ava do not inflict on themselves disgusting tortures, after the manner of the Brahminical Hindoos, although they deem it meritorious to mortify the flesh by the voluntary penances of abstemiousness and self-denial. The kioums or convents of the Rahaans differ in their structure from the common houses, and much resemble the architecture of the Chinese. They profess celibacy, abstain from every sensual indulgence, wear yellow, and never cook, holding it a degradation to perform any of the common offices of life likely to divert them from the contemplation of the divine essence; yet they are but little reverenced by their respective flocks, and have no political influence. In the various commotions of the empire, the Rahaans have never taken any active part, and have in consequence rarely been molested by the contending factions. Unshackled by the caste of the Brahminical Hindoos, or the bigotry of the Mussul-

man, so slight a hold has their present religious creed on the minds of the Burmese, that it has been asserted, and with strong probability, that the king of Ava could in one day, and by a simple order, change the religion of the whole nation, without creating a sensation or occasioning a murmur.

We have hitherto omitted to notice a very important personage, half sacred half prophane, who being the second dignitary in the kingdom, has a regular cabinet, composed of a woonghee or prime-minister; a woondock or secretary of state; a songhee, or inferior secretary; a nakeen, or transmitter of intelligence, besides other subordinate ministers and functionaries, some of whom manage the estates he possesses in the country. This individual is the white elephant, to whom presents of muslins, chintzes and silks are regularly made by all foreign ambassadors, the order of precedence in Ava being as follows: 1. The king; 2d. The white elephant; and 3. The queen. The residence of the white elephant is contiguous to the royal palace, with which it is connected by a long open gallery supported by numerous wooden pillars, at the further end of which a curtain of black velvet, embossed with gold, conceals the august animal from vulgar eyes, and before this curtain the intended offerings are displayed. His dwelling is a lofty hall covered with splendid gilding, and supported by sixty-four pillars, half of which are elegantly gilt. To two of these his fore-feet are fixed by silver chains, while his hind ones are secured by links of a baser metal. His bed consists of a thick mattress covered with blue cloth, over which another of a softer composition is spread, covered with crimson silk. His trappings are very magnificent, being of gold studded with large diamonds, pearls, sapphires, rubies, and other precious stones. His betel-box, spitting-pot, ankle rings, and the vessel out of which he feeds, are likewise of gold inlaid with precious stones, and his attendants and guard exceed one thousand persons. The white elephant, thus fed, dressed and attended, appears to be a diseased animal, whose colour has been affected by a species of leprosy. The one shown to Captain Canning in 1810, was of small size, of a sandy colour, and apparently unconscious of his own importance, although his votaries at a distance were humbly bowing their heads nearly to the ground. By the Birmans a white elephant is supposed to contain a human soul in the last stage of many millions of transmigrations, at the conclusion of which he is absorbed into the essence of the deity, and annihilated,—according to Birman faith, the highest state of beatitude.

The British embassy of 1826-27 had a more favourable opportunity of examining the white elephant than had fallen to the lot of the prior ones. It was the same elephant seen by Capt. Canning, of a cream rather than a white colour, and by no means so complete an albino as those belonging to the King of Siam. The veneration paid to this quadruped Mr. Crawfurd (the ambassador) thinks has been much exaggerated, it not being an object of worship, but only considered as an indispensable part of the regalia, which would be incomplete without it, and its absence would be considered a most inauspicious circumstance, prophetic of evil to the king and nation. Hence the anxiety evinced to obtain them, and the high reward offered for their capture.

Chronological tables of Burmese history, true or false, were procured by the late embassy, which go as far back as 543 years before Christ. The first monarchs are said to have come from India, from Magadha or Bahar, and to have fixed the seat of their government at Prome, where it remained for 336 years. In A.D. 107, it was transferred to Pagahm, where it continued for more than twelve centuries; hence the wonderful extent of the ruins of this metropolis. In 1322 the throne was transferred to Sakaing, and in 1364 to Ava,

where it remained for the 369 years, until the capture of that city by the Talcins or Peguers. Alompra made Monchaboo, his native town, the capital in 1752. His successors changed the capital almost every reign, to Sakaing, Ava, Amarapura, and then back again to Ava by his present Majesty in 1822. From the foundation of the monarchy to the present time there has been 128 kings, giving an average of seventeen years to each reign.

From the testimony of the Portuguese historians it appears that in the middle of the sixteenth century four powerful states occupied the regions that lie between the south-eastern provinces of British India, Yunan in China, and the Eastern sea. Their territories extended from Cassay and Assam on the north and west, and as far south as Junk Ceylon. These nations were known to Europeans by the names of Ava, Pegu, Arracan, and Siam. Ava, the name of the ancient capital of the Birmans, has usually been accepted as the name of the country at large, which is properly Mranma (pronounced Myamma), and named by the Chinese Zomien. The Portuguese authors say that the Burmese, though formerly subject to the kings of Pegu, became afterwards masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in Pegu about the middle of the 16th century. The Portuguese assisted the Burmese in their wars against the Talleins or Peguers, and continued to exercise an influence in the two countries, and still more in Arracan, so long as they maintained an ascendancy in the East over the other European nations. During the reign of Louis XIV. several splendid attempts were made to propagate the doctrines of the church of Rome, and advance the interest of the French nation in the kingdom of Siam; but little is related of Ava or Pegu.

The supremacy of the Birmans over the Peguers continued throughout the seventeenth century, and during the first forty years of the eighteenth century, about which period the Peguers in the provinces of Dalla, Martaban, Tongho and Prome revolted; and a civil war ensued, prosecuted on both sides with the most savage ferocity. About the years 1750 and 1751, the Peguers, by the aid of fire-arms procured from the European vessels trading to their ports, and with the assistance of some renegade Dutch and native Portuguese, gained several victories over the Birmans. In 1752 they invested Ava, the capital, which surrendered at discretion. Dwipadi, the last of a long line of Birman kings, was made prisoner with all his family except two sons, who escaped to the Siamese. Bonna Della, or Beinga Della, the Pegu sovereign, when he had completed the conquest of Ava, returned to his own country.

A man now arose to rescue his country from this state of degradation. Alompra or Alomendra Praw (the founder of the present dynasty), a man of low extraction, then known by the name of the Huntsman, had been continued by the conqueror in the chiefship of Monchaboo, at that time an inconsiderable village. His troops at first consisted of only 100 picked men, with which he defeated the Peguers in several small engagements, and his forces increasing, he suddenly advanced and obtained possession of Ava about the autumn of 1753. From this date, after a series of hard-fought actions, he first expelled the enemy from the northern provinces, then pursued them into their own territories, where, after a protracted siege, or rather blockade, he took the city of Pegu, which he abandoned to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. He next invaded Siam, and would have in all probability effected the conquest of that empire if he had not been prevented by a mortal disease, which arrested his career in 1760, in the fiftieth year of his age, after a short and prosperous, but bloody reign, of only eight years. In these wars the French favoured the Peguers, while the English chose the conquering side.

Alompra was succeeded by his eldest son, Namdojee Praw, who died in 1764, when his brother Shembuan assumed the reins of government, and being of a martial disposition, attacked the Siamese, and took their capital, Yuthia, in 1766, but was unable to retain permanent hold of so distant a country. In A.D. 1767, or 1131 of the Birman era, the Chinese sent an army of 50,000 men from the western frontier of Yunan, which advanced into the Ava dominions as far as the village of Chiboo, where they were hemmed in by the Burmese. The Tartar cavalry, on whose vigour and activity the Chinese army depended for supplies, could no longer venture out either to procure provisions or to protect convoys. Under these circumstances, their army was attacked and wholly destroyed, except about 2,500, who were sent in fetters to the capital, where they were settled, and encouraged to marry Burmese females. This custom is singular among the civilized countries of the east, and peculiarly remarkable in a people who derive their tenets from a Hindoo source. It is well known that in China even the public prostitutes are strictly prohibited from all intercourse with any other than a Chinese; nor is there any foreign woman permitted to enter their territories, or to visit the ports of this jealous nation. Hindoo women of good caste are equally inaccessible, and admission into a respectable tribe is not attainable by money.

The remaining years of Shembuan were occupied in subduing the revolts of the Peguers, harassing the Siamese, and effecting the conquest of Cassay, and Munipoor its capital, which last event took place in A.D. 1774. He died two years afterwards, and was succeeded by his son Chenguza, aged eighteen, who proving a debauched blood-thirsty monster, was dethroned and put to death in 1782, by his uncle Minderajee Praw, the fourth son of Alompra, the founder of the dynasty. This sovereign in the succeeding year sent a fleet of boats against Arracan, which being in a state of anarchy, by the assistance of internal traitors, was conquered after a slight resistance, and was soon followed by the surrender of Cheduba, Ramree, Sandowy, and the Broken isles. The Burmese arms were then turned against the Siamese, from whom, between 1784 and 1793, they conquered the provinces of Tavoy, Tenasserim, Junk Ceylon, and the Mergui isles.

In 1795, a Burmese army of 5,000 men pursued three distinguished robbers into the British district of Chittagong, where their progress was opposed by a strong detachment from Calcutta, and after much negociation retreated within their own limits; the then refugees were subsequently given up, and two out of the three executed with tortures. This acquiescence on the part of the British government had a prejudicial effect on the subsequent conduct of the Burmese, for it was impossible to convince this most self-important people that they were given up from any other motive than that of fear; which occasioned so frequent a repetition of violence and insolence, as to render war at last inevitable. Had the invasion of Chittagong been vigorously repulsed in 1795, and a direct refusal given to any proposal regarding the insurgents after so hostile a proceeding had been adopted, the recent war of 1824 might in all probability have been avoided.

From the year 1795 until 1809, when Capt. Canning's mission took place, the condition of this empire, both moral and political, had been progressively deteriorating, and the intellects of its sovereign gradually verging to insanity. The heir-apparent, or Engy Tekien, had died the previous year, and also his chief minister, a very respectable old man, both of whom had frequently prevented or mitigated the king's sanguinary orders. Deprived of these checks, his rage became ungovernable, and he often pursued with his sword and spear any person whose countenance he disliked. Insurrec-

tions and rebellions broke out over the country, while its sovereign was carrying on preposterous intrigues to excite the chiefs and people of Hindostan against the British government. Most of these were detected by the Bengal functionaries, but they were so utterly absurd and irrational that no notice was taken of them. In 1814, this barbarous and ignorant court renewed the wild and extravagant scheme of forming a confederation of all the native princes of India to effect the expulsion of the British, and, connected with the plan circulated a rumour that the king of Ava meant to make a pilgrimage to Gaya and Benares, at the head of 40,000 men. An emissary also, disguised as a merchant, was despatched by the route of Dacca, on a clandestine mission to the Seik country and Upper Hindostan; while the Shahbunder of Arracan visited Trincomalee and Madras, to collect information regarding the politics of Southern India. This Burmese intrigue was from the beginning fully known to the British government, but not the slightest importance was attached to it. About A.D. 1817 and the following years, this turbulent nation directed their arms towards the north, where they made a conquest of the extensive jungly countries of Assam, and the adjacent petty states south of the Brahmaputra, where they established and retained a permanent military force, and threatened the north-eastern quarter of the Bengal province, hitherto reputed unassailable.

Minderajee Praw died in 1819, and was succeeded by his grandon, Madu Chew, and son of the Engy Tekien, or heir apparent, favourably mentioned by Col. Symes in 1795. His ascension was attended with the customary bloodshed and massacres; but these disturbances appear to have been of only transitory duration, for when Ava was invaded by the British in 1824, he was found firmly seated on the throne, and busily engaged in extending his dominions. The unprovoked aggressions of his troops on the south-eastern frontier of Bengal, and the contemptuous silence of his court to every remonstrance on the subject, led to a rupture with the British, which commenced in May 1824, and lasted until the 24th of February 1826; when a treaty of peace was concluded by Sir Archibald Campbell at Yandaboo. By the conditions of this treaty the King of Ava renounced all claims on Assam, Cachar, Gentiah, and Munipoor; ceded the provinces of Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Martaban, south of the Saluen river; engaged to pay one crore of rupees as an indemnity, and to receive a resident British ambassador in his capital. This war was distinguished from every other by its duration, by its great privations, by difficulties of every kind, arising from the climate and nature of the country, by its unceasing and harassing duties, and by its frequent conflicts with the enemy. All these a British army, never exceeding 5,000 fighting men, surmounted, and dictated peace almost at the gates of the enemy's capital.

Impartiality, however, compels us to give the Burmese history of this war, as it stands recorded in the national chronicle of the Burmese empire by the court historiographer, to the following purport. "In the years 1186 and 1187 (Birman era), the kula pyu, or white strangers of the west, fastened a quarrel upon the lord of the golden palace. They landed at Rangoon, took that place and Prome, and were permitted to advance as far as Yandaboo; for the king from motives of piety and regard to life made no preparation whatever to oppose them. The strangers had spent vast sums of money in their enterprize, so that by the time they reached Yandaboo their resources were exhausted, and they were in great distress. They then petitioned the king, who in his clemency and generosity sent them large sums of money to pay their expenses back, and ordered them out of the country."

His present Majesty is now (1827) forty-four years of age, and came to

the throne in 1819. He is of short stature but active form, partial to riding on horseback and on elephants, and more especially on men's shoulders. In this last species of locomotion no saddle is made use of, and for a bridle a strap of muslin is put into the mouth of the biped. His natural disposition is said to be kind and benevolent, and he is easily led and ruled by favourites. He is well acquainted with the literature of his country, and reads, or rather hears a great deal read to him. The Queen is about two years older than his Majesty; has a good person and dignified address, but never was handsome. She was the daughter of a chief gaoler, and first taken into the seraglio as a concubine (while the king was heir apparent), where she soon acquired a powerful influence over him, which every year has appeared to increase, and is now so unbounded that the Burmese ascribe it to the power of magic, and call her a sorceress. She goes with all processions, and in 1823 the Chinese ambassadors were received by the King and Queen on the throne, to the great surprise of that ceremonious nation, who seclude the sex on all public occasions. She is not the mother of the existing heir apparent, and is generally unpopular; but by her devotion to her religion, and liberality to pagodas and monasteries, she acquired the good opinion of the priesthood. The proper title of the heir apparent is Ing-she-Men (Engy Tekien), which literally means "Lord of the East-house," but the origin of the phrase is unknown. The present prince is also named Rungran, after his government; but the most common name by which he is known is Sakya-men, which the Burmese translate "Lord of the World."—(*Crawfurd, Symes, Snodgrass, Trant, Canning, Cox, Leyden, F. Buchanan, Lieut. Low, &c.*)

Ava *(properly Aingwa).* — The ancient, and in recent times again the modern, capital of the Burmese empire, six miles south of Amarapura; lat. 21° 45′ N., lon. 96° E. When visited by the British officers in 1826 it appeared well-built, but not containing its usual amount of population. It is surrounded by a brick wall, but could have been captured in a few hours. Prior to the rupture with the British, Amarapura had been the capital; but having been almost destroyed by fire, and some evil omens having occurred, the king resolved on rebuilding and repeopling the ancient metropolis, events easily accomplished in Ava. By February 1824, he had finished the present beautiful (so it is called) palace, of which he took possession with much pomp on the fifth of next March, and to this removal the superstitious Birmans attributed their subsequent disasters. The audience house or room in the above palace, although little reconcileable to European notions of architecture and decoration, is said to be singularly splendid and brilliant, and there is reason to doubt whether an equally imposing hall exists in any other country. It has the same proportions with that described by Col. Symes, but is larger, being in the proportion of 120 by 90 feet. In 1827 the population of this city was only estimated at 30,000 persons, and in respect to wealth, industry, trade, and number of inhabitants, greatly inferior to Bankok, the capital of Siam. Its Sanscrit name is Ratnapura, or the city of gems.—(*Crawfurd, Snodgrass, Symes, &c.*)

Avenasky.—A large village in the province of Coimbatoor, about thirty-six miles travelling distance N. by W. from Daraporam. At this place there is a bridge constructed of immense flags of stone, and the village contains an ancient and very curious Hindoo temple, covered with sculptures.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Azimabad.—A small town in the province of Delhi, seven miles N. by W. from Kurnal; lat. 30° 47′ N., lon. 76° 54′ E.

Azimghur.—A town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles

N.E. from Juanpoor; lat. 24° 6′ N., lon. 83° 10′ E. A considerable quantity of cotton goods are manufactured and exported from this place and its vicinity. It was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in 1801.

AZIMNAGUR.—A large district in the Bejapoor province, situated to the south of the river Krishna, about the sixteenth degree of north latitude. It is watered by the Gutpurba and Malpurba rivers, but much of the surface still remains in a state of nature. The chief towns are Gokauk, Belgaum, and Shahpoor.

AZIM SAUHEB KA SERAI.—A serai in the province of Malwa, situated in a little cultivated valley among the wilds of the Vindhyan mountains, between the passes called the Jaumun and Koteedee ghauts, about eight miles S. by W. from the ruins of Mandow. This is one of the handsomest and most spacious serais in Hindostan, the outer wall being a massy work of grey granite with a superstructure of brick, and fortified with bastions and loopholes, while the galleries looking into the open square within, are built of the red Mandow marble, and divided into 176 cells or compartments, besides two suites of larger chambers in the centre of the east and west ranges. There is a small Bheel village on the skirt of the valley, and others are seen scattered about among the surrounding hills, consisting generally of four or five little stone hovels. In former times this serai and the ruins of Mandow were the favourite haunts of the Bheel robbers who then infested the neighbouring country. In 1820, it was in contemplation to transfer the head-quarters of the Bheel corps from Nalchah hither, as a better position for watching and suppressing the depredations of such of their mountaineer brethren as still remained unreclaimed.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

AZMERIGUNGE (*Ajamida Ganj*).—A town in the province of Bengal, seventy-five miles N.E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 33′ N., lon. 91° 5′ E. This is a place of considerable inland traffic, with a boat-building establishment for the construction of native craft.

B

BAAD.—A small t[illegible]n the province of Agra, six [illegible] south from the city of Agra, [illegible]oad to which is through a fertile country interspersed with clumps of mango trees. Lat. 27° 5′ N., lon. 77° 50′ E.

BABER.—A small island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by several others, scattered between the 130th and 131st degrees of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at eighteen miles, by six the average breadth.

BABHIER.—A town in the province of Gujerat, the coolies of which had long been the terror of the neighbourhood, but were at last so effectually put down by the British government, that in 1820 their troops consisted of only two horse and 112 foot, whereas in 1809 they amounted to 125 horse and 1,500 foot.

BABEREE.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, having little Babere opposite. In 1820 this place belonged to the Nabob of Bhopaul.

BABRA.—A town and petty state in the province of Malwa, district of Rath. In 1820 this was the residence of a Rajpoot chief, a great proportion of whose subjects were Bheels.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BABREEAWAR.—A district in the Gujerat province, comprehending that portion of the Gujerat peninsula terminated by the island of Diu. To the north it is bounded by Kattywar; on the south by the sea; to the west it has Soreth; and on the east the sea and the gulf of Cambay. This is a very barren tract, containing few towns, and producing barely sufficient food for its own consumption.

Until lately this portion of the peninsula was almost unknown, partly owing to physical difficulties, and partly to the well-earned reputation of its inhabitants for barbarity.

The sea-port of Jafferabad is properly in Babreeawar, and the Siddees, who have greatly multiplied in the neighbourhood, have formed several villages, where they live by their industry, and collect for sale a great deal of excellent honey, while the Babreeawar mountains afford a never-failing pasture, where during the drought of 1812-13 almost the whole cattle of the peninsula were assembled. The country is named after the Babreea tribe of Coolies, which formerly possessed great part of Cattywar and Goelwar, whence they were expelled by the Catties.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Babuan.—A small island about twenty-five miles in circumference, the most northerly of the Philippines. Lat. 19° 43′ N., lon. 122° E.

Babuyanes Isles.—A number of islands thus named, lying off the northern coast of Luzon, the principal Philippine, between the 19th and 20th degrees of north latitude. The largest are named Babuan, Calayan, Dalupiri, Camiguen, and Fuga, and are from twenty to thirty miles each in circumference; but besides these there are many rocky isles and islets. Although so far north, the Babuyanes, when visited by Capt. Forrest, were much infested by piratical prows from Magindanao.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Babye.—A middle-sized town and fort in the province of Gundwana, thirteen miles S.E. of the confluence of the Towah and Nerbudda, fifteen and a half miles E.S.E. from Hussienabad; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 77° 57′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunna, and belonged to the Raja of Nagpoor.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Backar (*Bhakar*).—A fortress in the province of Mooltan, situated on an island of the Indus, dependent on the district of Shekarpoor, and at present subject to the Afghans; lat. 27° 20′ N., lon. 68° 37′ E. By Abul Fazel this place and the surrounding district are favourably described; but since his time this portion of Hindostan has apparently been undergoing a gradual deterioration, owing to misgovernment, and the encroachment of the desert. Backar is also mentioned by Sidi Ali Ben Hossein in the journal of his travels overland from Gujerat to Constantinople, A.D. 1554.—(*Abul Fazel, Sidi Ali, &c.*)

Backergunge (*Bakarganj*).—A district in the province of Bengal, formed about the year 1800, from the southern quarter of the too extensive district of Dacca Jelalpoor. In 1801 the courts of justice and revenue were removed from the town of Backergunge to Burrishol, which was made the capital. A considerable portion of this division, formerly named Boklah or Ismaelpoor, extends along the western bank of the Puddah (Padma) or great Ganges, nearly to its mouth at the island of Rabnabad, which forms the south-eastern angle of the Bengal delta. About A.D. 1584 this tract was overwhelmed and laid waste by an inundation, succeeded by Mugh invasions aided by the Portuguese of Chittagong, from the combined effects of which it has not recovered to the present day, and the ruins of three old mud forts, built for defence against these incursions, still remain. In 1801, the district was supposed to comprehend 4,564 square miles.

The lands of Backergunge, notwithstanding their low surface and proximity to the sea, are very productive, being annually, during the periodical rains, overflowed by the fresh water of, and fertilized by the slimy mould deposited by the Ganges. In consequence of this redundant moisture and a hot sun, it produces annually two abundant crops of rice, and is the granary of Calcutta, both for exportation and consumption. From the contiguity of this division to the Sunderbunds (of which it is almost an integral portion), the nu-

merous rivers that intersect it in every direction, and the quantity of jungle still covering its surface, it not only abounds with alligators and tigers of the most enormous size, but has been from the remotest periods greatly infested by Dacoits, or river pirates. A strong establishment of boats and sepoys has always been maintained; but their efforts, and those of the magistrates, were for above thirty years wholly unavailing to suppress, or even diminish the number of robberies, every remedy attempted appearing to aggravate the calamity. A long perseverance, however, at last succeeded, for in 1814 the judges of circuit reported that the Backergunge district was in a state of security from violent depredation, and that offences of other sorts did not prevail to any great extent. Here, as in other parts of Bengal, the obstacles to the suppression of crime do not originate from any open resistance to the magisterial authority, but from the incredible difficulty of distinguishing the innocent from the guilty.

In 1801, the total population was estimated at 926,723 inhabitants, in the proportion of five Hindoos to three Mahomedans, many of whom reside in boats the whole year. In the southern quarter there still exist several Portuguese colonies, of probably two centuries duration, affording a melancholy example to what extreme degree it is possible for Europeans to degenerate. In June 1822 a great inundation occurred, which submerged an extensive tract of country, sweeping away houses and cattle, and drowning above 10,000 of the inhabitants, and even where no lives were lost much valuable property was destroyed.—(*Public MS. Documents, J. Grant, Crisp, &c.*)

Backergunge.—A town in the province of Bengal, about 120 miles east of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 42′ N., lon. 89° 20′ E. It was the head-quarters of the station until 1801, when the courts of justice and revenue were removed to Burrishol.

Badaumy.—A strong hill-fort in the province of Bejapoor, fifty-five miles N.E. from Darwar, which in 1820 contained 476 houses and 2,267 inhabitants. Lat. 15° 55′ N., lon. 75° 49′ E. It was taken by storm in 1818, by a detachment under Sir Thomas Munro, although it was always reckoned one of the strongest hill fortresses in India, having formerly made a successful resistance against the whole Maharatta army under Nana Furnavese. It consists of fortified hills, with a walled town at the bottom, containing an inner fort.

The hills in the neighbourhood of Badaumy are broken into various shapes, huge masses of many thousand tons being partly detached, or detached and rolled over. Little temples have been built on their summits, and among the chasms, and on two of the greater masses, partially separated, stand the two castles of Badaumy. For further particulars respecting the Badaumy pergunnah, see Bagulcot.—(*Marshall, Blacker, &c.*)

Badarwal.—A town in the Kohistan or high-lands of Lahore, forty miles S.S.E. from the city of Cashmere; lat. 33° 36′ N., lon. 75° 37′ E.

Badrachellum (*Bhadrachalam, the sacred mountain*).—A town in Gundwana, situated on the east side of the Godavery, seventy-eight miles N. by W. from Rajamundry; lat. 17° 57′ N., lon. 81° 17′ E. At this station the zemindar of Poloonshah collects taxes on all goods passing through his country. The merchandize is generally cotton, transported from the interior to the northern Circars, salt and cocoa-nuts being brought from the sea-coast in exchange. At Badrachellum there is a pagoda of high repute, sacred to Seeta, 200 yards to the south of which is the town, consisting of about 100 huts, the whole surrounded with jungle. In the middle of the Godavery, in this vicinity, the natives assert that a hot spring rises, and diamonds are found in the bed of the river.—(*J. B. Blunt, Heyne, &c.*)

BADRYCASRAM *(Vadaricasrama)*. See SOURCES OF THE GANGES.

BADRINATH.—See BHADRINATH.

BADULLA.—A town in the island of Ceylon, thirty-eight miles S.E. from Candy, lat. 6° 56′, lon. 81° 15′ E. This is the principal station of the Ouva district, and is situated on a gently rising ground about 2,100 feet above the level of the sea, within an extensive valley bounded by lofty mountains, and watered by a sluggish stream which nearly surrounds it. As a town it is insignificant, and the fortifications consist merely of a small stone fort, with cantonments for the troops. The adjacent land is fertile, and though so remote from the sea the cocoa-nut tree appears to flourish. The great mountain Numina Cooly Candy, next in elevation to Adam's Peak, rises in massive grandeur above the Badulla valley, its table summit sloping gently down on every side. On the 21st of March 1819, 1,000 feet from the apex, the thermometer stood at 53° Fahrenheit, before sunrise.—*(Davy, &c.)*

BAGALAEN *(or Bugilin)*.—A district in the south of Java, nearly central from east to west, but respecting which scarcely any thing is known.

BAGAROO.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, eighteen miles S.W. from the city of Jeypoor; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 75° 22′ E.

BAGESUR.—A village in northern Hindostan, sixteen miles N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 49′ N., lon. 79° 24′ E.

BAGHUL.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutlege and Jumna rivers. It was conquered by the Gorkhas in 1804, who extorted from it in all shapes a revenue equal to 23,247 rupees. At present it is under the protection of the British Government. Baheree, a fort erected by the Gorkhas, near Urki, is the Rana of Baghul's present residence.—*(Lieut. Ross, &c.)*

BAGHPUT *(Bhagapati)*.—A town in the province of Delhi, seventeen miles north from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 56′ N., lon. 77° 7′ E.

BAGLANA *(Bhagelana)*.—A large district in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude. This is a remarkably hilly province, but contains many fertile plains and vallies interspersed, and is studded with fortresses erected on the peaks of the mountains. Baglana is one of the original Maharatta countries where that tribe first emerged into notice, and it is still mostly occupied by petty chiefs of that nation. On account of its great natural strength, and the resistance it was capable of opposing, it does not appear that it was ever thoroughly subdued, either by the Moguls or the Deccany sovereigns. It was invaded by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1296, under Sultan Allah ud Deen, but it was an acquisition they were never able permanently to retain. It continued under a nominal subordination to the Delhi throne until the appearance of Sevajee, the first Maharatta leader, when it was one of the earliest that revolted, and remained, with various vicissitudes, under a Maharatta sovereignity until the fall of the Peshwa in 1818.—*(Ferishta, Rennell, &c.)*

BAGLEE.—A town in the province of Malwa, which in 1820 contained 500 houses; lat. 22° 39′ N., lon. 76° 28′ E., fifty-four miles S.E. from Oojein. This place is situated near the Cali Sinde, and has a small well-built ghurry or native fortification.—*(Malcolm, &c.)*

BAGRA.—A fort in the province of Lahore, situated on a peak 6,168 feet high, in the district of Mundi; lat. 31° 29′ N., lon. 78° 13′ E.

BAGRODE.—A town and small fort in the province of Malwa, situated on the road from Bhilsa to Ratghur, and eleven miles from the latter. In 1820 this place belonged to Sindia, and contained about 600 houses.—*(Malcolm, &c.)*

BAGULCOT *(including Badaumy)*.—A subdivision of the British district of Darwar, in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north-east by that part of the river Krishna immediately above the Kapen Sungum, or junction of the river Malpurba. The extreme length of this tract is about fifty-four miles, and extreme breadth forty-four; but from the irregularity of its shape, the square contents do not exceed 1,230 miles. It is badly watered, the annual rains not being sufficient to furnish perennial streams, or to fill the tanks with more than a few months' supply; most of the villages are consequently on the banks of the larger rivers.

Before the rains the climate is intensely hot, and the rainy season has not the violent character of a coast monsoon. The whole quantity of rain that fell at Badaumy in the months of July, August and September 1820, amounted to only eighteen inches, and the whole annual rain did not exceed twenty-six inches: an astonishingly moderate quantity for an intertropical climate, and often greatly surpassed in one month of the south-west monsoon near the coast, or first range of hills. From the want of running streams and large wells, the garden economy of the district is necessarily limited.

The pergunnahs of Bagulcot and Badaumy are decidedly in the ancient Carnataca or Canara proper, and the language is universally Canarese. Prior to 1810 they had been long administered by the Rastia family, and in 1820 contained 319 inhabited townships, including the towns of Bagulcot, Badaumy, Keroor, Perwatee, and Seroor. The number of houses as stated in the population returns was 21,654; of inhabitants 97,884, or about four and a half to a house, the males usually exceeding the females. The most numerous tribe is the Jungum or Lingawut, who comprise one-third of the whole; the Dhungur or shepherd caste one-fifth; Mahomedans one-sixth; the remainder Beruds, Mooslegeers, and other classes.

These pergunnahs were among the territories of the Shahnour Nabob, which in 1755 came into the possession of the Maharattas when the elder Balajee Row was Peshwa; but the country was then in a very disorderly state, and the Nabob's power little more than nominal. During the season of misrule the population acquired habits of violence and rapine, and it is quite incredible how sudden and universal a change took place on their transfer to the British government in 1818. Dr. Marshall, writing on the spot in 1820, declares that in no country had he ever met with such a total absence of crime; indeed, he thought it too miraculous to last.—*(Marshall, &c.)*

BAGULCOT.—A town in the British district of Darwar, province of Bejapoor, which in 1820 contained 1,376 houses and 7,523 inhabitants. It is the cusba or chief town of a pergunnah, and the residence of the principal merchants and bankers. A mint had been established here prior to the Maharatta conquest in 1755, which continued at work in 1820. It is entirely a private concern, the undertaker purchasing all the bullion, and issuing the coin on his own account. He pays a small tax to government, and is responsible that his coinage contains no more than the authorized proportion of alloy.—*(Marshall, &c.)*

BAGUR.—This ranks as a minor province in the old division of Hindostan, where it still retains its name and dimensions, but in modern geography is attached to the provinces of Malwa and Gujerat. It comprehends the hilly tract of country which formerly separated these soubahs; is bounded on the north by Mewar, and on the south by a narrow strip of Malwa, which extends from Petlawud to Dohud, and divides Bagur from Rath. The aspect is extremely uncouth, consisting almost entirely of ranges of hills running in a northerly and southerly direction, mostly covered with thick low jungle forests of teak, black-wood, &c., especially

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near the western and southern boundaries. On every side there is a descent from the old limits of Malwa to Bagur, and from thence, but more imperceptible, into Gujerat, the respective limits being distinctly marked by ridges of woody hills of moderate elevation. The climate for a considerable portion of the year is reckoned unhealthy, and, owing to a deficient supply of water, is comparatively unproductive. The mountain streams soon run themselves dry, and the digging of wells and tanks is attended with great labour and expense; reservoirs, however, are sometimes constructed by throwing an embankment across the stream of a narrow valley.

Excepting the towns of Doongurpoor, Banswarra, and Sangwara, this division contains no inhabited places of any importance; but vestiges of antiquity lie scattered over the surface, tending to prove, in particular localities, a prior condition of greater prosperity. At present the great mass of the population consists of Bheels and Meenas (between whom no intelligible distinction has yet been drawn) under various petty thakoors or chiefs, generally pretending to the dignity of Rajpoots.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAHADRA.—A town and petty state in the province of Delhi. In 1819 the chief of this principality requested that the British government would take his small territory under its protection, as it was then claimed by the Rajas of Patiallah and Bicanere.—(*Public Documents, &c.*)

BAHADURPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, sixty-two miles E. by S. from Cambay; lat. 22° 11′ N., long. 73° 46′ E.

BAHADURPOOR.—A town with a fortified ghurry, in the province of Gujerat, seven miles from Dubboi; lat. 22° 10′ N., long. 73° 45′ E.

BAHADURPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, district of Chendaree, lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia.

BAHAR.

(*Vihar, a monastery of Buddhists.*)

This large province is principally situated between the twenty-second and twenty-seventh degree of north latitude. Until the conquests of 1815, it was separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a range of hills, and a low woody country; on the south it has the ancient and barbarous Hindoo province of Gundwana; to the east it is bounded by the province of Bengal; and on the west by Allahabad, Oude, and Gundwana. The river Caramnassa was the old line of separation between the Bahar and Benares territories. The space comprehended within these limits is one of the most fertile, highly cultivated, and populous of Hindostan, in proportion to its extent of plain arable ground, which may be computed at 26,000 square miles, divided naturally into two equal portions, north and south of the Ganges, which runs here an easterly course for 200 miles.

One of these divisions extends northerly to the forests of Nepaul and Morung; is separated from Goruckpoor in Oude on the west by the Gunduck, and a crooked line between that river and the Goggrah. This northern division is bounded on the east by Purneah in Bengal, the whole area being one uninterrupted flat, which was divided by the Emperor Acber in four districts, *viz.* Tirhoot, Hajypoor, Sarun, with Chumparun or Bettiah.

The central division of Bahar extends south of the Ganges sixty miles, to the range of hills called in Sanscrit Vindya-Chil, which separates the lower plains from the territory above the Ghauts. It is divided on the west from Chunar in Allahabad by the river Caramnassa, and from Bengal on the east by a branch of the southern hills, extending to the pass of Telliaghurry, on the confines of Rajamahal. The district named Bahar, situated in the midst of this cen-

tral tract, occupies about one-half of the whole level area, the plains of Monghir one-sixth more, the rest being mountainous. Rhotas, the most south-westerly division, lies chiefly between the rivers Sone and Caramnassa, the remaining district extending along the south side of the Ganges. This central division, on account of the superiority of its soil and climate, yields nearly two-thirds of the total annual produce of opium. Exclusive of these two divisions there is a straggling hilly country, which yields but little.

Still further south there is a third and elevated region, comprehending 18,000 square miles, though comparatively of inconsiderable value. This highland includes the modern subdivisions of Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor; bounded on the west by the province of Allahabad, on the south by Gundwana and Orissa, and on the east by Bengal. This last division is geographically termed the three bellads or cantons, and is also, by Mahomedan writers, sometimes described under the appellation of Kokerah, but more commonly Nagpoor, from the diamond mines, real or imaginary, it is supposed to contain. The following were the superficial contents of this province in 1784, *viz.*

The lands of eight districts, containing	26,287
The lands belonging to Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor	18,553
Portion of hilly country in Monghir, Rhotas, &c....	7,133
	51,973

The province of Bahar enjoys great natural advantages: a temperate climate, high and fertile soil, well-watered, productive of the drier grains, and all the luxuries required for the more active inhabitants of the north. Its geographical position also is central, having easy communications internally, and serving as a thoroughfare for the commerce of Bengal with the upper provinces of Hindostan. These advantages brought Bahar into a high state of prosperity before the Patan conquest, and which has continued without interruption amidst all its political vicissitudes. In Bahar Proper and the contiguous districts, a parching wind from the west prevails during a large portion of the hot season, blowing with considerable strength during the day, but commonly succeeded at night by a cool breeze from an opposite direction; sometimes it ceases for days or weeks, giving way to easterly gales. Beyond the limits of the Bahar district to the west, refreshing breezes, and cooling showers of hail and rain, are still more rare. During the cold season a blighting frost is sometimes experienced in Bahar and Benares, at which period, among the hills, the wind is singularly bracing to European constitutions, the thermometer at sun-rise ranging from 35° to 40°, Fahrenheit, and frequently in the afternoon of the same day rising to 70°.

Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce have always flourished in this province. Opium may be considered as its peculiar produce, and the staple commodity of the country. Saltpetre is principally manufactured in the divisions of Hajypoor and Sarun. Cotton cloths for exportation are fabricated every where; in addition to which are the ordinary productions of grain, sugar, indigo, oil, betel-leaf, and a variety of flower essences, especially rose-water and otr of roses. Like the greater part of Upper Hindostan, Bahar was formerly supplied with salt from the Sambher lake in Rajpootana; but its inhabitants now consume the Bengal salt, with a portion of that imported from the coast of Coromandel.

The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of Bahar; and it is a practical remark, that the production of nitre is greatest during the prevalence of the hot winds, which are perhaps essential to its formation. These parching winds from the west did not formerly extend beyond the eastern

limits of Bahar; but by the change of seasons, which have been remarked within these forty years, the influence of the hot winds is now felt in Bengal, where, on that account, the manufacture of saltpetre might now be attempted with success. One hundred parts of nitre earth from the Tirhoot district, when analyzed by Dr. John Davy, was found to contain

Nitrate of potash	8 3
Nitrate of lime	3 7
Sulphate of lime	0 8
Common salt	0 2
Carbonate of lime	35 0
Earthy matter, insoluble in water and nitric acid ...	40 0
Water, with a trace of vegetable matter	12 0
	100 0

Artificial nitre beds consist of the refuse of vegetable and animal matter undergoing putrefaction, mixed with calcareous and other earths. The air furnishes the oxygen and nitrogen (or azote), which are the component ingredients of nitric acid; but how lime contributes to their union is not known, and the appearance of potash is equally extraordinary.

The opium produced in the provinces of Bahar and Benares is monopolized by government, to be sold in Calcutta by public auction; and, for various reasons, this monopoly seems less exceptionable than many others. At present, the opium agent at Patna makes his purchases in the districts of Bahar, Ramghur, Shahabad, Sarun, and Tirhoot; but Dr. F. Buchanan is of opinion, that, with some pains, the whole quantity might be procured from the Bahar district alone, which would tend greatly to the suppression of the contraband trade in this narcotic. In the evening, each capsule of the poppy, as it attains the proper stage of maturity, has a slight incision made in its whole length, and next morning what opium has exuded is collected. After two or three days another incision is made, at some distance from the first, and according to the size of the capsule, it admits of being cut from three to five times; but the crop lasts six weeks, as the capsules advance at different periods. The extraction of the opium does no material injury to the seed, which is chiefly reserved for future sowing; but a little is also used in native sweetmeats. Formerly the opium sent to Calcutta was much adulterated by the intermixture of foreign ingredients, and it was difficult to discover the nature of the adulteration; it has, however, been supposed, that it is usually vitiated with an extract from the leaves and stalks of the poppy, and with gum of the mimosa. Although the soil and climate are so singularly adapted for the production of this intoxicating drug, yet in 1815, the Board of Trade reported that the two agencies of Bahar and Patna had never been able to supply a greater quantity of opium, in the most favourable seasons, than was sufficient to satisfy the demand for foreign trade, and that during unfavourable seasons (which frequently occur) the quantity had never been equal to meet that object.

In the nature of landed property, there are several distinctions between Bengal and Bahar, of which the following are some of the principal. In Bengal the zemindarries are, or rather were, very extensive; and that of Burdwan alone was equal in produce to three-fourths of Bahar, in which the zemindarries are comparatively small. The power and influence of the principal zemindars in Bengal were proportionally great, and they were able to maintain a degree of independence, which the inferior zemindars of Bahar soon lost. The latter also, having been placed under a provincial administration, from distance as well as comparative inferiority, have been precluded from that degree of information which the zemindars of Bengal, from their vicinity to Calcutta and access to the officers of government, have been able to attain. The lands of Bahar have

from time immemorial been let to farm, and no general settlement, since the acquisition of the Dewanny, had been concluded between government and the possessors of the soil, until the final and perpetual settlement in 1792. There are few instances of jaghire in Bengal, probably not more than three or four, but they are frequent in Bahar. The custom of dividing the produce of the lands in certain proportions between the cultivator and government was almost universal in Bahar; but in Bengal this custom was very partial and limited. Upon the whole, the proprietors of the soil in Bahar were in a degraded state as compared with those of Bengal. In Bahar there are but three principal zemindarries; those of Shahabad, Tirhoot, and Tickary.

Here, as in Bengal, by the too precipitate conclusion of the perpetual revenue settlement, and the abolition of the Canongoe office, the tenant was apparently left at the mercy of the zemindar; but experience has shewn that he does not in practice suffer the hardships to which in theory he would appear exposed, the reciprocal wants of the parties driving them to something like an amicable compromise. The landlord can no more do without the tenant, than the tenant can do without the landlord. The obligation of the latter to pay his land-tax is peremptory, his failure, ruin. Starvation is equally the lot of the cultivator, if he cannot get employment. Nature, however, in this climate requires little; and although frequent instances have occurred of zemindars having been ruined, none have been recorded of a cultivator being starved for want of employment. In reality, the tenants both of Bahar and Benares are certainly in a better condition than during the time of Cossim Ali. One-half of the produce is still the usual share of the cultivators, and the demand for them is so great, that they can and do make better terms. A tenant who had one plough at the time of the perpetual settlement, will now have two or three ploughs, and since that date the hire of a ploughman has nearly doubled, while grain is, on an average, cheaper. And although cloth and some other articles of necessary use are dearer, the cultivator, who was formerly almost naked, is now seen clothed.

The principal rivers of Bahar are the Ganges, the Sone, the Gunduck, the Dummodah, Caramnassa, and the Dewah, the two last being boundary rivers: besides these, there are innumerable smaller streams, the province in general being abundantly supplied with moisture. In the drier tracts south of the Ganges, irrigation is usually effected by water drawn from wells by means of a lever and buckets, and conducted to the fields through sloping channels. In other parts, tanks for the same purpose are formed by damming up a hollow, through which a stream runs, with a mound of earth, as is practised in Mysore and the Carnatic on a larger scale. The towns of the greatest magnitude are Patna, Chuprah, Daoudnagur, Gaya, Boglipoor, Monghir, Arrah, Chittra, and Muzufferpoor. As we advance north through Bahar, the race of natives improve in stature and appearance, as compared with the Bengalese; but they are much more addicted to intoxicating drugs, the deplorable effects of which every village exhibits melancholy evidence; and as to religion, no sanctuary in Hindostan can exhibit so depraved and degraded a crew as the priesthood of Gaya. In respect to their domestic economy, also, the Baharians are decidedly inferior to their neighbours in cleanliness, for nothing can surpass the filthiness of the mud-huts in a Bahar village. These, however, are generally larger than the matted dwellings of the Bengalese, and in towns are not unfrequently of two stories. The connexion betwixt Bengal and Bahar has always been so intimate that it is difficult to separate their histories and statistics, more especially with regard to revenue and population, on which topics the

reader will find some additional information under the head of Bengal.

In a remote era of Hindoo history, as conveyed down by their mythological legends, Bahar appears to have been the seat of two independent sovereignties; that of Magadha, or South Bahar, and that of Mithila (Tirhoot) or North Bahar. Although Gaya, the birth-place of Buddha, the great prophet and legislator of eastern Asia, be within the limits of this province, and is still a revered place of pilgrimage, yet among the resident inhabitants no Buddhists are to be found, so completely has the race been either converted or eradicated, for there is some reason to believe that until the first Mahomedan invasion, the Buddhist religion was professed by the chiefs, and the Jains assert that they were predominant prior to the Buddhists. A specimen of the Lord's Prayer in the Magadha, or dialect of South Bahar, when examined by the missionaries, was found to contain twenty-four of the words used in the Bengalese and Hindostany translations, besides some words of pure Sanscrit. At present it is supposed that more than one-third of the inhabitants profess the Mahomedan faith.

The tranquillity enjoyed by this tract of country, since its transfer to the British, is probably unexampled in the history of India, the roar of the cannon at Buxar, in 1764, being the last hostile sound that has reached the ears of its inhabitants. The consequence has been, that the cultivation of the soil, more especially since the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, has been progressively increasing, and the population of particular tracts (for it is difficult to get the natives to transfer their labour to contiguous wastes) absolutely overflowing. On the other hand, religious buildings are visibly on the decline, the followers of the two rival persuasions having no longer, as they formerly had, the wealth necessary for the construction of such edifices. The few which at present piety or superstition finds means to erect are generally poor and insignificant; an observation which also applies to domestic buildings of every description.—(*J. Grant, F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Fullarton, Sir E. Colebrooke, Lord Teignmouth, Gholaum Hossein, &c.*)

BAHAR.—A large district in the Bahar province, of which it occupies the central portion. On the north it is bounded by the Ganges; on the south by the districts of Ramghur and Boglipoor; to the east it has Boglipoor; and on the west Shahabad. Its whole length is about 120 miles, and its extreme width eighty; but the superficial contents do not exceed 5,358 square miles, of which 403 belong to the city of Patna's jurisdiction.

A great proportion of this division is level and highly-cultivated land; but there are also many hills, most of which are extremely rugged, and their sterility rendered more conspicuous by their nakedness. Many of these are scattered about with the utmost irregularity, and stand quite insulated among the soil of the plains. In the heart of the district are three remarkable clusters, one on the west of the Phalgu; one on the east side of that river; the third a long narrow ridge adjacent to Shukpoorah; the whole, however, of inconsiderable elevation, the highest probably not exceeding 700 feet. The hills towards the southern boundary are more considerable, and some of them probably twice that height. From hence a continuation of hills and narrow vallies reaches, with little or no interruption, to Cape Comorin, all of which are considered portions of the Vindhyan mountains that bound the vast Gangetic plain. The hills of the Bahar district no where approach the Ganges, and the interior, reckoning from the Ganges, is in general flat, but not subject to inundation. The term terriani is here applied to the banks of the Ganges, whether high or low, and great pains are taken by cultivators in the collecting and conducting of water.

The Ganges is no where fordable within the limits of this division, at any season of the year, and its channel when clear of islands is generally a mile broad. Besides that noble stream, the chief rivers are the Sone, the Punpun, the Phalgu, the Saeri, and the Panchane, with their numerous branches. The district contains nothing that can be called a lake, nor are the permanent marshes any where extensive. During the rainy season, for the purposes of cultivation, a great proportion of the soil is converted into a marsh; but in the dry season, even the low lands parellel to the Ganges, from Patna downwards, become devoid of moisture. On the banks of the Ganges towards the Sone, west winds prevail from the 13th of January to the 26th of March, from which period until the 12th of June the east and west winds are nearly equal. From the last date until the end of July the east wind prevails, and from then until the end of August the west winds prevail. From that time until the end of October the east winds return, and finally, from that period until the 13th of January, the east and west winds are nearly balanced; many irregularities, however, take place in the periods and duration of these winds. The rainy season is generally of the same length as in Boglipoor; but when the fall has not been very copious from the 15th September to the 15th October, the rice crops suffer, unless there is a good deal of rain towards the end of October. Rains that happen in January are injurious to most crops, especially to wheat, although the fields of that grain require at that season to be artificially watered. Two or three days of cloudy weather, with drizzling rain, will at that season entirely burn up a crop of wheat.

Although the winters are not severe, fires are extremely comfortable, and all the natives who can procure one, sleep by it: yet frosty nights are rare. The heats of spring are excessive, and much aggravated by the dust, there not being at that time a vestige of vegetation, and not only the west winds, but also those from the east, are hot and parching. The heat of the Bahar district is on the whole much higher than that of Tirhoot. Even the difference between Patna and Hajypoor, two places situated opposite to each other on the Ganges, is very perceptible, and between Gaya and Muzufferpoor is much greater than might be inferred from the trifling difference of latitude; yet by the natives Bahar is considered a healthy country, while Tirhoot, except its northern parts, is not considered such. Both Patna and Gaya are found to be hotter than most other parts of the district. The heat of the first seems owing to a great extent of naked sand on an island immediately fronting the town; and that of Gaya, partly to the sands of the Phalgu, and partly to the reflection of the sun from the arid rocks that surround it.

In this district there is much land, of a poor soil, but the proportion absolutely unfit for the plough is not great. Close up to the hills is generally arable, but most of the hills are utterly unfit for tillage of any sort. Near the large rivers of the interior, especially near the immense channels of the Sone and Phalgu, the strong, dry, west winds of spring have blown from the parched beds of the torrents large heaps of sand, that form little hillocks of moving sand, perfectly barren; but in the vicinity of the Ganges a great deal of the land gives two crops a year. The transplanted rice is all fine; but the very finest, named basmati, does not exceed one-fourth of the whole, and is always in great demand among the Baboos of Calcutta. In 1811 there were 24,000 begas under cultivation for cotton, and a great deal was besides imported from the west. The cultivation of tobacco was not great, and that of indigo of little importance.

The rents here are heavy, amounting usually to one-half of the crop, after deducting the expenses of

the harvest, and sometimes to nine-sixteenths; but, except in the cities of Patna and Gaya, or other large market-places, the ashraf or high ranks pay no rent for the land occupied by their houses, nor can any landlord refuse to allot land for the purpose to any ashraf who requires it. The natives of the British isles, however, not being dignified with the title of ashraf, find great difficulty in procuring land to build on, and must always pay an extravagant rent, a circumstance (as Dr. F. Buchanan observes) by no means the usual practice of successful invaders. These ashrafs consist of high castes, both Mahomedan and Hindoo, such as Seids, Patans, Moguls, Brahmins, Khetries, Rajpoots, Kayasthas, and Vaisyas. Although the rent of land is much higher than in the districts further east, where some pay next to nothing, the generality of the people are in much better circumstances. The extent of land here exempted from revenue is quite enormous, and in 1801 was estimated by the collector as equal to half the amount of those paying a land-tax; yet the last were reported to be in the best state of cultivation. Many of these rent-free portions are still large, but, owing to the established rules of succession, are fast frittering away into petty portions. This minute subdivision of property has reduced a great majority of the zemindars to the condition of mere peasants, just a stage above beggary. The profit on the assessed lands is supposed greatly to exceed ten per cent., indeed probably exceeds the whole amount of the revenue (which in 1814 was 1,748,006 rupees); yet the assessed lands up to 1811 had not become saleable property, many of the lots put up to auction by the collector having for want of purchasers fallen into the hands of government, which tends to prove that the settlement made by Lord Cornwallis is not a security even for the revenue which he rendered perpetual. The tricks, chicanery, and roguery, by which this apparently unaccountable predicament has been effectuated, would require, to detail them, a volume of most enormous dimensions, and when narrated, would put to the blush, conjointly and severally, all the pettifoggers in Europe.

The villages here usually consist of mud-walled houses, closely huddled together, so as to render a passage through them on an elephant or in a palanquin often impracticable; but the district being populous, and the inhabitants of a gregarious disposition, it contains a remarkable number of considerable towns, such as Patna, Gaya (the residence of the civil establishment), Daoudnagur, Bar, Dinapoor, Bahar town, &c. &c. In 1811 the population of this district, excluding Patna and its jurisdiction, was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 724,159 Mahomedans, and 2,030,991 Hindoos; total 2,755,150 persons. In 1801 Mehedi Ali Khan, the son of Gholaum Hossein Khan the historian, resided in this district. Slaves of the descriptions called Nufur and Laundi are very numerous, often liberated, seldom sold, and frequently, owing to the poverty of their owners, left to find a subsistence for themselves. Considering how many large towns there are in Bahar, the number of prostitutes is small; and the petty town of Rungpoor, with the small tract immediately adjacent, contains more than the immense city of Patna with the territory attached to it. The convicts here, as in most other districts, are employed on the roads, which, in fact, is doing little more than making a place agreeable to those who keep carriages, and next to nothing to the public, if the natives be considered as forming any part of it.

The six great places of pilgrimage in this district are the river Punpun, Gaya, Rajagripa, Baikuntha on the Panchane, Lohadanda near Geriyak, and Chyaban Muni; but the two last are little frequented. It deserves remark, that the Buddhists and Jains both agree in placing within the limits of South Bahar, and its immediate

vicinity, the locality of the death and apotheosis of the last Buddha, as of the last Jina, and of his predecessor, and his eldest and favourite disciple. Both religions have preserved for their sacred language the same dialect, the Pali or Pracrit, closely resembling the Magadhi, or vernacular language of Magadha, or South Bahar. Between these dialects (the Pali and the Pracrit) there is but a shade of difference, and they are often confounded under a single name.

In this district the feet of a dying person are not put into the river, and the low and ignorant are allowed to die in their houses; but men of rank and learning turn their parents and children out of doors when they think they are about to die. They are then placed on a mat, under every inclemency of the weather, and some sacred herb (the tulsi) or stone (the salgram) is placed by them, while prayers are read until they die. If the expiring person be rich, they put into his hands the tail of a cow, which he gives as his last offering to the Brahmins. Natural affection has in general struggled very hard against the barbarity of this exposure; and although no man can avoid the ceremony, natives of rank, from frequent observation, have acquired a very great skill in marking the symptoms which precede dissolution; so that here their kindred are very seldom exposed until not only all hope of recovery, but until sensation is over. Where custom renders it necessary that they should die with their feet in the river, and their house is at some distance, more suffering must arise from the practice, and conjecture cannot be so certain, because the kindred cannot await the last symptom. In general, when a man is exposed to suffer long, the conduct of the kindred requires investigation, for there can be no doubt that occasionally, though very rarely, this custom has been made the instrument of most atrocious purposes.

Marriage in this country ought rather to be called betrothing, as the wife never enters her husband's house, and does not cohabit with him, until she arrives at the years of maturity, when she is conducted home with great expense and ceremony. In Bengal the wife does not live with her husband until the time of maturity, but she is carried to his house immediately on marriage; and although she returns to her parents, the marriage is always consummated so soon after ten years of age as the astrologer declares the time propitious. All widows here are admitted to the privilege of burning when they receive accounts of their husbands' death, when he has died at a distance. In Bengal, the widows of Brahmins can only burn when they accompany the corpse. A widow at Tikari, in this district, went beyond the custom, as she burned herself ten years after her husband's death, and thereby gained the praise of all, although the action was not strictly legal.

Hindoos of rank and learning here have a great objection to take an oath; and it is said, according to the Gayatri Tantra, it is equally sinful to speak truth as falsehood, when sworn to on the Ganges' water, the toolsee, or the salgram, cows'-dung, or the dust of cows' feet. It is said they have no objections to swear on their sacred books. The Radha Ballavies worship Radha and Krishna, but they differ from the Gossains of Bengal, who worship the same deities, in addressing the goddess before her husband. This sect is most numerous in the countries between Bindrabund and Gujerat.

This district is universally allowed to be in the old Hindoo territory called Magadha, governed in ancient times by Jarasandha, who in the Brahminical legends is called an asur, or enemy of the gods. According to tradition, this prince, being of considerable dimensions, used to stand on two hills in this district, having a foot on each, and look across Hindostan to Dwaraca in Gujerat, at the thousand wives of

his kinsman Krishna, as they bathed in the western ocean, and also pelted them with brick-bats. To revenge these incivilities, Krishna sent his kinsman Bheem to punish Jarasandha, who killed him in a valley near his own house, towards the conclusion of the third age of the world. At present the Hindoo inhabitants, when they wish for an image, take the first that comes to hand in a ruin, and in the selection pay little or no regard, either to the sex or the attribute. Many of the old images are in a superior style for Indian productions, but very far removed from approaching European ideas of perfection.

In the police division of Duryapoor there was a temple on a hill, which the natives told Dr. Francis Buchanan had contained a lingam, which they complained had been removed by Mr. Cleveland to Boglipoor, a proceeding very unlike the conciliatory conduct for which that gentleman was so justly celebrated. On subsequent inquiry, however, it appeared that it had not been a lingam, but an image of the sun, and that it had not been carried away by Mr. Cleveland to Boglipoor; on the contrary, it had been carried away by the late Mr. Davis, one of the directors of the East-India Company; but this gentleman did not consider that he was carrying the sun's image from these villagers, but from a bear that made the ruined temple his abode, and did not appear to have any occasion for an image of that luminary. In fact, the number of images scattered throughout this district is quite incredible.

The era in this district is called Sumbut, but that word implies era, or rather juncture. The Pundits consider their era as that of Vicrama. The year of the Sumbut 1869 began on the first day of the waning moon, in the lunar month Phalgun, which was on the 28th of February 1812. The year consists of twelve lunar months, but after every thirty lunations an intercallary month is added. This year is used every where by the Hindoos in their ceremonies, but is here also used in their civil affairs, which is attended with some inconvenience, as at different years the same months happen at somewhat different seasons.

The great leprosy is found here in two varieties, one of which attacks the small joints, and the other the skin, of which it renders large portions perfectly insensible. The prejudice against the unfortunate persons seized with this dreadful malady is so great, that some of the lower castes, when seized with it, have destroyed themselves. These are placed in a boat, and a pot of sand being tied to their neck, they are conducted to the middle of the Ganges, and there thrown overboard. The people thus destroyed are perfectly willing, both because they are helpless and miserable, and because they think that the sin, to which the disease is attributable, will be removed by dying in the sacred stream, and they cannot afford to pay for the prescribed forms of expiation by prayers and ceremonies. The books of law condemn this species of expiation by drowning: but a passage of the Mahabharat is interpreted in support of it, and where perfectly voluntary, it certainly saves the miserable wretch from much suffering in this world.

Chronic swellings of the legs and throat are not more common than in Boglipoor. That of the throat is generally ascribed to the persons having resided long on the north side of the Ganges, and certainly the vast disparity in the proportion of those affected on the two sides of the Ganges cannot be accounted for on any other principle than some peculiar condition of the water flowing from the Northern mountains, for in every part where this water flows the disease is common.

In the division of Newada, the Jain sect have two places of pilgrimage; one a tank choked up with weeds, especially the Nelumbuim. The temple stands on a small square island, and contains two stones, on each of which there is an inscription, and

the representation of two human feet; but no tradition exists from what cause its reputation for sanctity originated. The Mahomedan population of the district has been estimated at 724,000, and occasionally they still make converts from the pagans, especially by the purchase of slaves, who are usually treated with great kindness; but, for want of money, this mode of conversion now proceeds slowly. The Shiah sect form but an inconsiderable portion of the whole, probably not exceeding 3,000 families, mostly of rank. The number of Brahmins is immense, 80,000 families, most of them having betaken themselves to agriculture and arms; and there are also a considerable number of Hindoos belonging to the sect of Nanock, the Seik lawgiver. The division of Jains named Shrawaks amount to about 350 families. On the annual festival called Dewali, the Gowalas or cowherds tie the feet of a pig, and drive their cattle over the wretched animal until it is killed, after which they boil and eat it; but at other times they do not use pork. On this occasion every rich man sends his cattle to assist in the ceremony, and poor men paint the horns of their cattle in order to make them look handsome.

When the British took possession of this district by far the greater part of it was in a wild state, and the southern half, after being repeatedly plundered by the Maharattas, had fallen into a predatory anarchy. The Mahomedan chief of the tribe of Mayi, and the rajas of Tickary, were the principal leaders in these dissensions; but being coerced by the British power, tranquillity was restored, and a more adequate land-tax imposed. At present most parts of the district are overflowing with population, and the whole would have probably been so, had not the very great extent of rent-free land tended in some divisions to encourage sloth and negligence.—(*F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Tufton, &c.*)

Bahar.—A town in the province and district of Bahar, thirty-five miles S.E. from Patna; lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 85° 35′ E. This city was probably at some remote era the capital, but it has since been superseded, first by Patna and afterwards by Gaya. The existing town is a large scattered place, surrounding the ditch of an ancient city, now in a great measure deserted. The most compact part is a long narrow bazar or street, paved in a rough manner with bricks and stones, but of a miserable appearance. In the centre of the town are the remains of a massy stone building, roofed with a number of diminutive domes, which partition its interior into as many cells, resembling the Patan mosques of the upper provinces. Although much decayed it still contains about 5,000 houses, and the vicinity is remarkably well cultivated and artificially irrigated.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Bahawulpoor.—A principality of considerable extent in the province of Mooltan, but thinly peopled, situated principally about the twentieth degree of north lat. The town of Bahawulpoor stands about sixty-two miles S. by E. from the city of Mooltan; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 71° 29′ E.

This territory extends (or did extend in 1809) 280 miles from north-east to south-west, and about 120 miles in the other direction at the extreme points, and for a certain distance includes both banks of the Indus, the Jhylum, and the Chinaub. The banks of the rivers are every where rich, but to the west of the Chinaub the soil at a distance from the river is poor, and towards the east a mere desert. For four or five miles on each side of the Hyphasis the surface is formed of the sediment deposited by the river and is very rich, but so soft as scarcely to support a horse. Some portions are highly cultivated; others covered with coppice of low tamarisk trees, abounding with wild hogs; hog-deer, wild geese, partridges, and floricans,

are also plenty on the banks of the river. Further east, approaching Bicanere and the Bhatty country, the soil degenerates to an arid sand, destitute of vegetation; to travel through which an establishment of camels is as requisite to carry water, as in the deserts of Arabia.

The principal towns are Bahawulpoor, Ahmedpoor, Seedpoor, and Ooch. The strongest place is the fort of Derawul, which owes its ability of resistance to the utter sterility of the sands that surround it; yet it was the usual residence of Bahawul Khan, the founder of the dynasty. The inhabitants of this district are Juts, Baloochies, and Hindoos, which is the usual mixture of population in the adjacent territories, but within the limits of the principality the Hindoos are the most numerous class.

The town of Bahawulpoor stands within a short distance of the united streams of the Beyah and Sutuleje, here named the Gurrah, which winds very much and is muddy; but the water when filtered is of an excellent quality. In circumference it extends about four miles, but the walls include gardens and mangoe groves. The houses are built of unburned bricks, with mud terraces, and very thin walls of the same material. It is noted for the manufacture of silken girdles and turbans, and the camels being fleet and strong, are in great demand for hunting. The resident inhabitants are principally Juts and Baloochies, both professing the Mahomedan faith: the number of Hindoos is also considerable. Bahawul Khan, the founder of this state, was rather a tributary prince than a governor delegated by the Afghan sovereign. He died in 1811, leaving a son of very inferior abilities, and the state has since fallen a prey to the rapacity of Runjeet Singh, the Seik Raja of Lahore.—(*Elphinstone, Registers, Smith, &c.*)

BAHDORIAH. — A subdivision of the Agra province, intersected by the river Chumbul, partly within the British territories and partly in those belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia.

BAIDYANATH *(or Deoghur)*—A celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Bengal, district of Birbhoom, said to have been built by Raja Praun Mull of Ghiddore; lat. 24° 32′ N., lon. 86° 40′ E., 110 miles W. by N. from Moorshedabad. The town of Deoghur is situated on a rising ground, and for many miles in extent is surrounded by forests. The temple here is famous for a lingam it contains, respecting which a strange story is told in the puranas, where mention is also made of a river. At present there is no stream whatever, although there are several sacred pools. Pilgrims resorting to Baidyanath usually bring water with them from the prayagas, or sacred junctions on the Ganges, and pour it over the lingam, round which they walk a certain number of times, while others lie down and continue fasting until they have had a favourable dream. Prayers of various sorts are addressed to the presiding deity. Some pray to be kings in the next transmigration, or for such worldly enjoyments as they prefer; others pray for happiness in the heaven of the divinity they address; while some, tired and harassed by the miseries of successive births, pray to be released from existence altogether.

At a particular season the roads are crowded with pilgrims of both sexes and all ages, on horseback and on foot, dressed in quilted cotton, dyed green or yellow, and presenting a most cheerful and animated sight. On his shoulders every man bears a semicircular frame of bamboo, with a basket at each end, decorated with peacocks' feathers and other ornaments. In one of these baskets the pilgrim's baggage is deposited, in the other his stock of Ganges water, in small glass phials holding two or three ounces each, and as many bring an overplus, strangers who have come unprovided are enabled to purchase a small supply of the sacred fluid for

which they pay a high price.—(*Ward, Fullarton, &c.*)

BAILURU.—A town in the territory of the Mysore Raja; lat. 12° 55′ N. lon. 76° 3′ E. In A.D. 1800, cochineal to the weight of 1,500 pounds was made here, upon nopals raised by the farmers as a prickly fence for their gardens; but the insect was of the inferior sort that had been introduced from America.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BAITMAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifteen miles N.W. from the cantonments at Mow: lat. 22° 38′ N., lon. 75° 46′ E. In 1820 it was the capital of a pergunnah belonging to Holcar, and contained about 1,500 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAITOOL.—A fortified town belonging to the Nagpoor Raja, in the province of Gundwana near the sources of the Tuptee, which springs from the Nyardy hills, fifty-six miles N.N.E. from Ellichpoor; lat. 21° 55′ N., lon. 78° 4′ E. It stands near the hill-fort named Kierlah, on the road from Hussingabad to Nagpoor, and is the capital of a pergunnah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAJITPOOR.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsing, forty-eight miles N.E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 14′ N., lon. 91° E.

BALABAC.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about eighteen miles in length, by four the average breadth, lying off the southern extremity of the island of Palawan; lat. 8° N., lon. 117° 10′ E.

BALABALAGAN.—A cluster of thirteen small flat islands in the straits of Macassar, covered with trees, and having navigable channels between them. They are also named the little Paternoster Isles. The Biajoos fish here for biche-de-mar, which they strike on the sand at the bottom in eight and ten fathoms, with an iron pronged instrument.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

BALAGHAUT CEDED DISTRICTS.

In the south of India a stupendous wall of mountains, named the ghauts, rises abruptly from the low country, supporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vast extent of level plains, which are so elevated as to affect the temperature, and render the climate cooler. This table-land extends from the Krishna to the southern extremity of Mysore, and is named Balaghaut, or above the ghauts, in contradistinction to Payeenghaut, or below the ghauts. This extensive and fruitful region formed the ancient Hindoo empire of Karnata, no part of which was below the mountains, although in modern times the term has been so misapplied by Europeans and Mahomedans, as to signify exclusively the country (Carnatic) below the ghauts. Under the present head, the term Balaghaut is restricted to the territories acquired by the British government in 1800, and since subdivided into the collectorships of Bellary and Cuddapah. They were acquired by treaty with the Nizam, dated the 12th October 1800, and comprehend all the territory situated south of the Krishna and Toombudra rivers, which fell to the Nizam's share by the treaties of Seringapatam in 1792, and Mysore in 1799, together with the talook of Adoni, and all his Highness's other districts south of these rivers. This large tract of country now composes the Balaghaut ceded districts, and to these two-thirds of Punganoor were added, and part of Goodeput, having been exchanged for certain districts, which had been reserved by the treaty of Mysore as the eventual portion of the Peshwa, but which by the supplemental treaty of Mysore fell into the possession of the British government. Under the ancient native sovereigns, this quarter of the Balaghaut was subdivided into many sections, the chief of which were Kurnoul, Adoni, Cummim, Harponelly, Rydroog, Bellary, Gooty, Ghazi-

poor, Cuddapah, Dupaud, Gurrumcondah, Punganoor, and Sidhout.

The ceded districts contain more ground than Scotland, and occupy the centre of what is improperly termed the peninsula, which inland position seems to occasion the frequent droughts experienced in these territories. The northern boundary is well defined, and the Toombudra river formerly afforded a sure protection for many months of the year. It also fills some water-courses that irrigate the country about Bijanagur, the ancient Hindoo capital, and about Rampoor in Adoni. Owing to the elevated surface of this region, it has no large rivers, except the Krishna and Toombudra, which mark its boundaries to the north. The southern portion of the ceded districts consists of vallies lying between the eastern ghaut mountains, which extend from Colar to Gurrumcondah, and from thence stretch inland as far west as Sera. To the north of these divisions are Cuddapah, Gooty, and Bellary, which lie lower than the mountain vallies to the south, but are intersected in different directions by many ranges of low hills.

The soil of these territories is generally good, especially the black land, which when cleaned and properly ploughed requires nothing more than a harrowing for the next twenty years; in fact, a farmer may cultivate a field of this description for his whole life, without perhaps ploughing it more than once. The black soil is most common in the western divisions, where a noble plain of this description is seen from the top of Adoni hill, stretching north-west and south-east from Gooty to the Toombudra, fifty miles long by from sixteen to twenty broad, which, whether it be considered as an object of agriculture, or as a landscape, presents a grand prospect. This rich soil appears to be pure black mould from two to twelve feet deep, but how and when first collected remains unknown. It contains no vestiges of decayed branches or trees, while the red and black soils are often abruptly mixed; the latter, indeed, is found among rocks where trees never could have grown. Round the hills and rocks, which abound, the soil is usually a red gravel, and both black and red soils are mixed with sand and calcareous stones. In some red fields they do not even attempt to clear the land of stones, as every successive ploughing raises a new crop of stones, which in some respects are not detrimental.

The soil here is in general more fertile than either Canara or Malabar. Two or three nights' rain will ensure a greater crop, in proportion to the extent of surface and seed, than six months' drizzling in Canara. The black soil is the most fertile, and when once ploughed requires little further trouble; but as the red soil is worked with slighter and cheaper tools, the poorer classes of farmers are generally settled on it. Drill husbandry is universal. The rains are uncertain, but ought to fall in June, at which period all the peasantry are looking up to the heavens for a shower, as one good night's rain is sufficient to enable the cultivator to sow his seed: but if it fails in June, the whole crop is in danger of being lost. If a little of the rain which deluges Canara, tears up the soil, and injures the agriculture, could be transferred to the ceded districts, they would be among the most fertile of Hindostan. As it is, the rains are heavy in September and October, when they often do as much damage by bursting the tanks as their absence occasions during the earlier months.

The labour and expense of clearing black land are very great. Having cut down the shrubs and bushes on 100 acres, the farmer proceeds to plough east and west for one month, and then north and south for another. The succeeding month is employed in grubbing up the roots, after which it is harrowed by a ponderous machine for one month and a half. This last-mentioned implement is so heavy as to require twelve or sixteen bullocks,

which work from morning until noon and then rest. After the first great harrowing they again harrow with two smaller machines and six bullocks for a fortnight, and finally with a still smaller drawn by two bullocks, The work, however, does not finish here, for labourers are required for two weeks longer to clear the ground of roots; after which light harrows are again employed. This previous preparation being completed, cotton and koraloo are sown together by a drill machine, after which it undergoes repeated harrowing, hoeing, and drilling, and about three or four months afterwards the crop is ripe, when it is reaped by three or four gatherings in the course of a month. If it be taken care of there will be no occasion to plough a field prepared in this manner for twenty years; but it must be annually harrowed with four bullocks before the seed is scattered, for if this be neglected, the great plough and heavy machinery must be again brought out. There is still much waste land in this province, where poverty cramps and deadens the efforts of the cultivator. In some parts the seed is put into the ground without any previous process, and pressed down by a bush on which a large stone has been placed instead of a harrow.

The red soil requires turning up and ploughing, ten or twelve bullocks being necessary for one hundred acres. It is first cleared by hand labour with the hoe and hatchet, and then well ploughed. It is in general full of stones, which in some places they do not attempt to move. Sometimes they manure by folding sheep, one thousand being necessary to manure six acres, when kept on it ten nights, which process however must be annually repeated. At other times they manure with the dust, ashes, and refuse of the village, which is thinly spread after a shower and ploughed in; this will last four years. The seed is then deposited by a drill of a simple construction, consisting of three shares, which make their furrows about an inch deep. Three hollow bamboos are placed directly over the shares, joined at the top in one cup, from whence the seed drops through the bamboos into the furrow. A woman follows the plough holding a hollow bamboo perpendicularly, with a cup at the top, into which she pours seed of a large size. The bamboo is dragged along by the drill machine, to which it is fixed by a string five or six feet long, the female holding it steady with one hand while she pours in the seed with the other. The plough with a horizontal share drawn by two bullocks follows, cutting the earth horizontally and filling up the furrow. To manage the drill and horizontal ploughs, four persons and four bullocks are necessary. One person drives the bullocks; another pours in the seed, of which eight different kinds are frequently sown together; a woman conducts the hollow cylinder dragged after, and a man or boy drives the bullocks that follow with the horizontal plough. Before they begin to work, the machine is painted and consecrated.

The great armies that have so often traversed this province have destroyed the trees, except a few clumps which are chiefly found among the hills: no expense thereforeshould be spared in promoting the planting of trees, especially of palmiras. According to the survey accounts there are 50,258 wells in the Balaghaut ceded districts, of which, in 1807, above 13,914 were out of repair. Garden produce was then supposed only to pay about six and one-eighth per cent. of the land rent. The bare rocks and absence of wood gives the surface a rugged and savage appearance, which well agrees with the character of the people, who are more laborious and hardy, and at the same time more ferocious, than the natives below the ghauts; their food, dress, and weapons, are also more manly than those of their lowland neighbours, and on the first acquisition of the territory, every inhabitant not only carried, but was accustomed to the use of arms, while

every village was fortified. At that era they were also, probably, the poorest people under the British government. So far were they from having any property in the soil, like the landholders of Canara and Malabar, they were seldom even fixed tenants, but migrated from farm to farm, and from village to village, where they clubbed together to carry on their cultivation. Even the houses were government property, and the only proprietors of land were the enaumdars. The enaum, or charity lands of the village, were established during the Hindoo empire of Bijanagur, and tolerably well tilled. These lands had been resumed and measured by Tippoo, who laid his hands on every thing; but the ingenuity of individuals rendered the resumption little more than nominal.

The troubles that so long prevailed in the ceded districts before they were transferred to the Madras presidency, occasioned the destruction of all the ancient revenue accounts; there is reason, however, to conclude, from the tenour of all tradition, from existing documents, and from inquiries, that the land has all along been the property of government. The ancient princes were accustomed to grant away the property in the soil, as well as the government rent, a proof that the land entirely belonged to government. Tradition states that the Bijanagur dynasties took half the produce estimated in kind, and converted it into money at a rate unfavourable to the farmers and cultivators. The avowed principle of the Mahomedans, after the conquest of Bijanagur in A.D. 1564, was an equal division of the produce between the government and cultivator, the share of the first being converted into money at the average of ten preceding years, but the last was further burthened with the payment of fees. It is said that, at the period above-mentioned, there were few chiefs like the present poligars. The chiefs of Anantpoor, Raydroog, and Ouke, were great officers of state under the Bijanagur sovereigns, and held their districts as personal jaghires for their maintenance. Even the Annagoondy Rajas, the descendants of the royal race who so long ruled the south of India, were at last subdued, and though permitted to hold a few districts, were subjected to peshcush. The brood of poligars, that afterwards did so much mischief, sprung up between the period above alluded to and the reign of Aurengzebe.

War, famine and bad management, all combined for many years to depopulate the ceded districts and diminish their revenue; but the incessant rebellions of the poligars seem to have been the main cause of their decline. These poligars were originally either public officers of government, who held villages for their personal maintenance, or they were renters who set up for themselves, or lastly they were usurpers. Some were merely potails or head villagers, who, taking advantage of the strength of the country and weakness of the government, withheld the revenue and levied troops. These self-created chiefs kept up all the state, and were installed with all the formality of legitimate sovereigns, although their incomes did not exceed from two to three hundred pagodas per annum, and their pretensions were never acknowledged by any of the different governments that preceded the British in the administration of the province. Neither the Cuddapah nabobs, however, nor the Maharattas, could keep them in subjection, or compel them to pay their tribute with regularity; while the struggles to enforce it on one side, and to resist it on the other, produced unceasing broils, and distracted the country during the whole of the eighteenth century. In fact, neither Hyder, Tippoo, or the Nizam, made the slightest progress in restoring tranquillity, and anarchy had attained its utmost perfection in these districts when they were transferred to the British government. During this period of distraction the poligars withheld the revenues in order to raise a force to defend themselves;

the army sent against them plundered on all sides, so that their rebellion and reduction were equally destructive to the miserable cultivators.

In A.D. 1800 the British functionaries entered the Balaghaut ceded districts, where they found confusion worse confounded. The inhabitants had been plundered, not only by the revenue officers, but by every person who could pay a bribe for the privilege of trying to extort money. The chief inhabitants had not only been permitted, but encouraged to carry on a predatory warfare against each other on the same terms. The indolence and corruption of the Nizam's officers influenced them to abandon the collection of the revenue to poligar zemindars, and the head-men of villages. Every village was a garrison, the inhabitants of which frequently turned out and fought a pitched battle with the village nearest to them. The Nizam's troops were always engaged in the siege of some place, while the exactions of those thus armed with authority, and the habitual obstinacy of the village people, made it difficult to say which was in the right. Murders were so common that few families of note had escaped assassinations, or were themselves unpolluted with blood. In those times the head-man acted the part of a little potentate in his own village, and the anarchy that pervaded the province might in some measure justify his taking on himself the dictatorship of his little republic; but the impunity which a few hundred rupees secured for the most atrocious crimes, tempted every man who could afford it, to indulge his rapacity, malice, or ambition. In most parts the head-man of the village, the head cultivator, and the village accountant, so peaceable in the Company's old territories, had become leaders of banditti, chiefs of robbers, and sanguinary ruffians, garrisoning dens and strong-holds. To the east matters were still worse, for there the poligars had generally resumed their former situations and depredations. The impotence, in short, of the Nizam's officers, the predatory and military habits of the natives, so frequently overrun by large armies, the frequent transfers from one government to another, and the frontier situation which enabled offenders to escape, had introduced a state of anarchy scarcely ever excelled in the annals of India.

The strong arm of the British power established a reluctant tranquillity, and the country was beginning to recover from its state of desolation, when a severe drought, in 1803, greatly injured it. In many parts the failure of the dry crop was so complete, that the blade never appeared above ground; in others it never produced an ear, but withering, was abandoned to the cattle. Unfortunately, the same drought that prevailed in 1803, continued with unabating severity throughout 1804, when the evils were infinitely aggravated. The continuance of the drought for two years had parched up the ground; there was no grass in the pastures, straw was enormously dear; a great proportion of the cattle perished, and many of the poorer inhabitants were forced to quit their houses. During this year the drought was so severe, that nothing but the prudent measures adopted by the principal collector (Sir Thomas, then Colonel Munro) to alleviate, and more especially his abstaining from all the measures which so frequently aggravate a scarcity, could have saved the country from the horrors of a famine, such as then desolated the Nizam's country, and such as had in former seasons, not so bad, desolated the ceded districts. The rice here, in June 1804, was eight seers per rupee, while on the opposite side of the Krishna, at the distance of only thirty miles, it was five seers. The soil and produce of Adoni in the British territory, and of Raichoor in that of the Nizam, are nearly the same, and they are only separated by the Krishna; yet in Raichoor there was a famine, when in Adoni there was only a scarcity, and both were equally protected by the army under

General Campbell. In 1805, a great increase of revenue took place in consequence of a favourable season following the two preceding years of dearth, and ever since these districts have greatly improved, notwithstanding the recurrence of bad seasons, and other serious obstacles from a turbulent population.

The ceded districts, when obtained in 1800, were placed under Col. Thomas Monro, and were valued in the deed of cession at 1,651,545 star pagodas, including all heads of revenue. The collector, in the first instance, fixed his rate much below what had been the former demand, increasing it only as the means of the cultivator and the state of the country improved. In the course of seven years the land revenue alone increased from 1,006,593 to 1,517,272 pagodas, and under the able management of Col. Munro, the inhabitants of the province, from disunited hordes of lawless freebooters, became as far advanced in civilization, submission to the laws, and obedience to the magistrates, as any other subjects under the Madras presidency. In 1817, the total gross collections of the two districts (Bellary and Cuddapah) into which this province was divided amounted to 1,740,304 star pagodas.

In 1806, after the survey of the province was completed, instructions were issued to make out new returns of the number of inhabitants in every village, as far as was practicable by actual muster, except with those castes who seclude their women from public view. The total number of inhabitants, according to the lists returned, amounted to 1,917,376 persons, which shewed an increase of one-fourth of the population in five years of tranquillity, partly arising from the return of persons who had emigrated during the Nizam's domination; but the remainder must be attributed to the falsity of former returns. These records of the population tended to prove that the males exceeded the females in number one-tenth. The number of cattle, sheep, and goats could not be ascertained with the same accuracy, their owners having a superstitious prejudice against their being counted by others, or even by themselves.

Within the limits of this province districts are subdivided into villages, under the guidance of potails, or head farmers, by whom the peasantry are guided. In all villages the latter are in the habit of meeting and debating on the subject of rent, and there are many villages where they settle among themselves the exact proportion of the whole rent that each individual is to pay; they are called veespuddi, or sixteenth villages, from the land rent being divided into sixteenth shares. A great part of the Cuddapah district is composed of these villages, and they are scattered, though more thinly, over other parts of the country. When the season for cultivation draws near, the peasantry of the veespuddi villages assemble to regulate their several rents for the year; the pagoda is usually the place chosen for this purpose, from the idea that its sanctity will render the engagements with each other more binding; every village being in this manner a small collectorate, conducted by a potail or head farmer. This quarter having been brought under subjection by the Mahomedans at a comparatively late period, and never thoroughly subdued or settled, a very great proportion of the inhabitants follow the Brahminical persuasion; but in the larger places, such as Cuddapah, Bellary, Adoni, and Curnoul, many Mahomedans are to be found. That the courts of justice in the Balaghaut ceded districts have but few causes is partly accounted for by their poverty, law being as yet too expensive a luxury.

Indigo is here raised and exported in considerable quantities, and the coarse sugar manufactory is also on the increase. Cotton is one of the chief productions, which although it at first languished, is now rapidly on the increase; the peasantry, in general, being a very industrious race, and most of them cultivators by caste.

Diamond mines are found in many parts of the ceded districts, especially in the eastern and central divisions. In the Chinoor pollam, not far from Cuddapah, there are two places, called Condapetta and Ovalumpally, where these gems are found; and in the next talook, at Lamdoor and Pinchetgapadoo, as also in the Gooty division. All the diamond mines in this part of India, with a few exceptions, lie between the Krishna and Pennar rivers, from which tract the famous Golconda diamonds were procured, the country so called not producing any.

In remote times this province formed part of the last existing Hindostan empire of Bijanagur, to which article the reader is referred for some historical particulars. A great proportion of the modern poligars claim descent from the officers of the Bijanagur dynasties, and some, direct from the royal family. After the fall of the Mogul emperors of Delhi it contained several independent Mahomedan states, especially the Patan nabobs of Adoni and Cuddapah, and suffered encroachments from the curturs, or chiefs of Mysore. It was mostly conquered by Hyder, between 1766 and 1780, and in 1800 was, by treaty with the Nizam, as before related, transferred to the British government. In a political and military point of view, these districts are at present of great value, for they are now what the Carnatic formerly was, the countries from which our armies in the Deccan must draw their supplies of cattle and provisions. While under the Nizam, their revenue declined every year, and an army was constantly in the field, the expense of which consumed the collections; indeed, the country was then in so distracted a state, that the Nizam seemed to have given it up to the British because he could not retain it in subjection.—(*Thackeray, Sir Thomas Munro, 5th Report, Hodgson, Rennell, &c.*)

Balambangan (*properly Berobangan*).—A small island in the Eastern seas, about fifteen miles in length by three in breadth, lying off the northern extremity of Borneo; lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 117° 5′ E. The harbour called the north-east is the largest; but at that on the south side, where the English settled, the ground is swampy. The soil is rich and fruitful; the harbour abounds with fish, and is very convenient for watering. In 1774 the East-India Company formed a settlement here with a view to the spice trade; but next year were treacherously expelled by the Sooloos, who surprised the Buggess centinels, turned the guns against the guard, and drove the settlers on board their vessels. The settlement was re-established in 1803, but afterwards abandoned. The island was uninhabited prior to 1774, and has probably remained so ever since the British quitted it.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Balangode.—A town in the island of Ceylon, district of Suffragam, fifty miles S. by E. from Candy, and 1742 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 6° 23′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.

Balasinore.—A town and petty state in the province of Gujerat, whose chief is named the Babi of Balasinore. It stands near the Seyrei river, about forty-one miles east from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 59′ N., lon. 73° 25′ E.

Balasore (*Valeswara*).—A large straggling town in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Boori Balang river, 125 miles S.W. from Calcutta; lat. 21° 32′ N., lon. 86° 56′ E. A group of five rocky hills project boldly forth to within seventeen miles of the bay of Bengal, known to old navigators as the Nelligreen (neel gheree, blue mountains). This was formerly a flourishing town, and at an early period of European intercourse, the Portuguese, Dutch, and English had factories here. It has since much fallen off; but what remains, though meanly built, forms a town of considerable extent, here and there exhibiting a deserted European-built house, denoting its former miscellaneous in-

habitants. Indeed the sites of several factories may still be traced, by a ruined gateway, a group of tombstones, or some such memorial, and the foreign flags are still hoisted on the respective premises by a Portuguese writer, who for sixteen rupees per month officiates on behalf of the different sovereigns, who have long ceased to have any other representative. The salt agent for the Cuttack district usually resides at Chundepoor, on the sea-beach, a few miles from hence, where salt is manufactured by lixiviating the mud according to the process practised in the Sunderbunds. Formerly a considerable quantity of grain was exported to the south; but this branch of trade has of late years declined, owing to the long-continued peace enjoyed by the Madras territories, which has enabled them to supply their own consumption without importation. Balasore, however, is still the principal port of the Cuttack district, and is provided with dry docks, to which vessels not drawing more than fourteen feet of water can be floated at spring tides. In 1822 it was estimated to contain 10,000 inhabitants, and was frequented chiefly by Maldive vessels, salt boats, and a class of sloops that carry rice to Calcutta during the cold season. Travelling distance from Calcutta 141 miles.—(*Fullarton, Stirling,* 10 *Reg., Leckie, Bruce, &c.*)

BALI ISLE.—See BALLY.

BALIJ.—A town in the province of Gujerat, Kaira district, thirty-three miles S.E. from Ahmedabad; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 73° 10′ E. This place, until 1817, although completely insulated by the British dominions, belonged to the Guicowar, from whom it was obtained in exchange for another tract of equal value.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BALKY (*Phalaki*).—A town in the province of Beeder, twenty-two miles N.W. from the city of that name; lat. 18° N., lon. 77° 19′ E. Fifty years ago this was a large town, but it is now much decayed, and answers better to the description of a village.—(*Upton, Register, &c.*)

BALLAPOOR.—A town in the Berar province, fifty-eight miles S.W. from Ellichpoor; lat. 20° 39′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E.

BALLIAGHAUT.—This place is now comprehended within the limits of Calcutta, being properly its port for the eastern inland navigation, although within the memory of inhabitants still alive a jungle intervened two miles in extent, infested by tigers and other ferocious animals. A remarkable change has since taken place, there being a handsome avenue of gardens and houses the whole way. It is situated near the western extremity of two shallow muddy salt lakes, which at low water are nearly empty, but when full admit native craft of considerable burthen.—(*Fifth Report, &c.*)

BALLY (*Bali or Little Java*).—An island in the Eastern seas, separated from Java by the strait of Bally, and lying between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude. The south-eastern extremity of Java is in lat. 8° 41′ S., lon. 114° 25′ E. Table Point, the southern promontory of Bally, is in lat. 8° 50′ S. In length it may be estimated at seventy miles, by thirty-five the average breadth. The coast rises gradually for ten miles towards the interior, to a ridge of mountains which stretches across from east to west, and terminates at the eastern end in the peak of Bally, which is volcanic. The straits are narrow in some parts, and a six-knot tide runs at full and change.

This island exhibits the same geological features as Java, but it has an iron-bound coast, and is destitute of harbours, and even of safe anchorage. The lands are irrigated by abundant streams and rivulets from the mountains, and are remarkably productive. In the lower tracts the chief article of food is rice, but in the upper maize and sweet potatoes; the animal food is mostly swine's flesh and beef, the price

of an ox seldom exceeding 12s. sterling. A considerable number of ox and buffaloe hides are in consequence exported, but the natives have not yet learned the art of salting their hides. Besides these the chief exports are rice, birds'-nests, coarse cloths, cotton yarn, salted eggs, dingding, gambir, and oil; the principal imports, opium, betel-nut, ivory, gold, and silver. Unlike the Malays, the Balinese abhor a seafaring life, nor are they much addicted to merchandizing, the Buggess prows (in 1824, about fifty) being the grand carriers of the Archipelago. The most profitable trade not long ago was that of slaves, which has since much diminished: yet from 300 to 1,000 are still annually exported, mostly by the Chinese, who prefer them on account of their superior strength and intelligence.

The natives of Bali excel the Malays and Javanese in stature and muscular strength, and appear a superior race to the generality of the Eastern islanders. The Chinese population is also considerable, especially at Blelling. The demand of the chiefs for a share in the crops rests on the peculiar husbandry of the country, which depending greatly on irrigation, of which he is the distributor, he claims in consequence for the water expended. The constitution is essentially despotic, as modified by the system of village government, which prevails here as in Java. In 1815, the ordinary price of rice was 133 pounds for three-fourths of a Spanish dollar.

In Java, the establishment of a Mahomedan government for nearly four centuries has tended to obliterate the general knowledge of the better educated; but in Bali the Hindoo faith, however perverted by local superstitions, is still the paramount religion, the Mahomedan doctrines having made little progress, and no portion of the island having ever been permanently subjected to European authority. The grent majority of the Balinese are Hindoos, of the sect of Siva, subdivided in the four great castes of Brahmins, Khetries, Vaisyas, and Sudras. There are also a few Buddhists, and a class of outcasts held impure, and designated by the Hindoo name of Chandala. The Balinese Brahmins may be considered as genuine adherents of Vyas; but the great mass of the populace, like those of Bengal, worship their tutelary gods, every village, mountain, forest, and river having its peculiar deity. The Brahmins are treated with great respect, and conduct the administration of justice, civil and criminal, They have their hair bound up in a knot, but do not wear the distinguishing thread; the three inferior castes crop their hair short. Princes are usually, but not invariably, of the military caste, as in 1815 the Raja of Carang Assem, the most powerful on the island, was of the mercantile class. Little attention is paid by the great mass of inhabitants to the Brahminical doctrines of purity and impurity of food, for they eat beef without remorse, and hogs and poultry are among their daily luxuries. The sacerdotal class, however, are more scrupulous, and restrict themselves to a vegetable diet.

In Bally there are no religious mendicants, or ascetics addicted to extravagant acts of mortification, but the practice of sacrificing the widow and concubine at the funeral pile of the husbands, is carried to an excess unknown in Hindostan. These immolations are most frequent among the military and trading castes, for a female of the servile class rarely undergoes the sacrifice; and, what is more extraordinary, one of the sacred order never does. When the father of the present Raja of Blelling was burned, seventy-four women mounted the pile along with the corpse. The Balinese language is a rude, simple, and peculiar dialect, besides which there is a copious and refined language of deference, borrowed from the Sanscrit and Javanese. The Hindoo era of Salivahana or Saca, seventy-eight years date after the birth of Christ, is universally used here, under the de-

nomination of Saca-warsa-chandra. It is said that the Brahmins here are able to calculate eclipses from tables in their possession, but this fact has not yet been well established.

In A.D. 1815 the island of Bally was divided into eight states, each independent, and governed by its own chief. At that date the total population was loosely estimated at 800,000 souls; but as the computation was founded on the number of males whose teeth had been filed, no great accuracy is to be expected; *viz.*

In Klongkong	30,000
Carrang-assem	50,000
Badong	20,000
Blelling	30,000
Tabanan	40,000
Mergui	20,000
Giangur	50,000
Taman Bali	10,000

At present the state of Klongkong is allowed to be of the highest antiquity; yet in 1633, when the Dutch solicited assistance at Bally, the prince of Gelgel appears to have been paramount. In 1814, the Raja of Blelling's brothers having insulted the British post at Blambangan, in Java, an expedition called at Java on its way to Celebes, and received the submission of several Rajas, and during some time the town and crattan of Blelling were occupied by a British garrison.—(*Crawfurd, Raffles, Thorn, Forrest, Leyden, &c.*)

BALOOCHISTAN,

(Or the Country of the Baloochies). —The boundaries of Baloochistan, in their widest acceptation, are, the Indian ocean to the south; Seistan and Afghanistan to the north; the provinces of Laristan and Kerman to the west; and to the east Shekarpoor and the Sinde territories. Within these limits are comprehended the provinces of Jhalawan and Sarawan, Mekran and Lus, Cutch Gundava, and Hurrund Dajel, Kohistan, and the desert. The space may be described as being included between the latitudes of 24° 50′ and 30° 40′ north, and the longitudes of 58° 55′ and 67° 30′ east; but some sections of country exceed these limits east and west. The whole of this extensive region composed the dominions of Nassir Khan, the father of the late Khan of Kelat; but since his death, in 1795, it has undergone many political and territorial changes.

To the south, Baloochistan Proper commences at Bayla, from which place it extends northward to Nooshky, seventy-nine miles N.W. from Kelat. This country is described as a confused heap of mountains, through which the roads generally lead in water-courses and the dry beds of small rivers. Jhalawan is the most southerly district of Baloochistan, and Sarawan the most northerly. They are a mass of mountains from Kohunwat, on the frontiers of Lus, to the desert which separates them from Candahar; the length of this stupenduous range is 350 miles, but varies in breadth at different places. These mountains are barren, being chiefly composed of coarse, black stone; the vallies of Wudd, Khozdar, and Sohrab are capable of cultivation. The climate of this alpine region assimilates in a considerable degree to that of Europe, experiencing four distinct seasons: spring, summer, autumn, and winter. The heat is seldom unpleasantly great, but during the months of December, January and February, cold is intense.

The plains of Wudd, Khozdar, and Sohrab, produce, in favourable seasons, plentiful crops of wheat, barley and jowaree, and in some of the lesser vallies grass grows abundantly. Flocks of sheep and cattle are numerous in every part of the country. Jhalawan and Sarawan are subdivided into smaller districts, and every district into innumerable khails or societies, each of which furnish their quota of troops, according to the population or the exigence of the service. Shal and Mustung, two stages to the north of Kelat, were given to Nassir Khan by Nadir Shah for his services at Mished, and Hurrund Dajel for those in Hindostan. Nooshky is a small tract of about thirty-six square miles, at the base of the Kelat mountains. It is an arid tract, the

sandy hills of which are continually shifting with the winds. A slender stream called the Xysur issues from the hills, and irrigates a small portion of the country; and there are also small patches of land capable of cultivation in different parts of the sand, but which frequently become quite sterile for want of rain. The inhabitants of this tract dwell under black felts, stretched over wicker-work made of the guz plant. This species of village is named tooman or khail, and in most of them a few Hindoos are to be found.

The soil of Nooshky being so sandy, the heat in the summer months is excessive: on which account the inhabitants migrate to the mountains for cool air and water, as the stream at that season fails in the valley. The inhabitants import grain from Cutch Gundava, and Seistan, and dates from Mekran. The Baloochies here are called Nharroes and Rukhsani, and are related to those of the same tribe in Seistan and Bunpoor. In appearance they are tall men, with small bones; are extremely idle and dissolute, and addicted to thieving. They undertake predatory incursions to Mekran, and carry off into slavery every person they capture worth the trouble; some they sell at Kelat and Candahar, the remainder are brought into the horde, and incorporated with it. In this part of the country all the Baloochies understand Persian; but they speak a dialect of the Baloochy among themselves, different from the Koorgalee spoken by the Brahooees. Sohrab is a fine valley, extending north and south fifty miles, by about twelve in breadth. The middle, through which the water runs from the hills, is well cultivated, with many villages scattered about half a mile asunder. The mountains in many parts of Baloochistan are inhabited by shepherds, who reside in temporary huts, erected on any spot that offers good pasturage.

The general soil of Baloochistan is sandy, stony, and arid, and the mountainous tracts consist mostly of hard black rock. The earth on the plains is mixed with such a profusion of pebbles and small stones that the mould is scarcely visible: yet this most unpromising mixture produces, when properly tilled and irrigated, abundant crops of wheat and barley, and where uncultivated, grass of a luxuriant growth. In the parched and desert portion of Baloochistan the date tree bears the first rank in point of importance. The best timber is procured from the apoor tree (greatly resembling the teak) and the tamarind, both remarkably hard and durable, and of great dimensions, to which may be added, the babool, tamarisk, and mulberry. The neem, peepul, sissoo, chinar, mangoe, walnut and sycamore, are also found in different tracts; but the oak, ash, and fir are unknown. Almost every description of mineral is said to be found here, but our information on this head is as yet defective. Rock-salt is common to the westward, and on the road from Cutch Gundava there is a range of hills, containing salt of a perfectly red colour and aperient quality. In that vicinity sulphur and alum are also found, and to the west of Nooshky white and grey marble.

The wild and domestic animals of Baloochistan are very numerous, comprehending both tropical and European classes. The horses are strong, well boned, and large, but usually vicious. Those exported to India are mostly reared to the south of Kelat, and in Cutch Gundava. The sheep are of the fat-tailed species. The camel and dromedary are highly prized by the Balcoochies; the first for burthen, the last for speed.

There are few countries so wholly without commodities suited to commercial exchange as Baloochistan; partly owing to the aversion of the natives to regular industry, and partly to the physical nature of the country, consisting either of stupendous mountains, or arid plains destitute of moisture, vegetation, or navigable rivers, the roads being generally nothing but the dry beds of torrents. The population is also dispersed into small

societies, hostile to each other, and yielding scarcely a nominal obedience to any chief. The exports from Kelat are at present insignificant, but it was once the great channel of merchandize from Khorasan, Candahar, Cabul, and India. The imports from Hindostan consist of iron, tin, lead, steel, copper, indigo, betel-nut, cochineal, sugar, spices, silks, kincaubs, gold cloths, chintzes, and coarse woollens. Land watered by weils pays one-twentieth of the produce; that by the rains from one-tenth to one-sixteenth; and that by natural springs a still higher proportion.

The inhabitants are divided into two great classes, severally known by the appellations of Baloochy and Brahooee, which are again subdivided into an infinite number of tribes, khails, and tomuns. Between these two great classes there are leading distinctions of language and appearance, but the national aggregate is exclusively denominated Baloochies, partitioned into three distinct tribes, the Nharoocés, the Rinds, and the Mughsees. These are mostly stationary, but the Brahoocés are more migratory and unsettled. The latter have tall persons, long visages, and high features; the former short, thick bones, round faces, and flat lineaments, and the hair and beards of both are brown. In husbandry and domestic occupations the Brahoocés are hard workers. Those residing near the plains till large tracts of land, and dispose of the produce to the Hindoos for exportation. This and the sale of cheese and ghee, the produce of their flocks, with a few coarse blankets, carpets, and felts, form the only traffic in which the Brahoocés engage. Their food is the same as that of the Baloochies, except that they prefer flesh meat half cooked, without bread, salt, or vegetables, to any other species of nourishment.

The Brahoocés and Baloochies are equally noted for their hospitality; but the latter are less addicted to rapine and predatory violence, yet are fully equal in personal bravery and the endurance of hardships. They are also considerably exempted from the worst traits of the Baloochy character, which are avarice, a vindictive disposition, and proneness to cruelty. All the Baloochies are excellent marksmen, but the Brahoocés excel in strength and courage. They train greyhounds with great care, and frequently exchange them for one or two camels, or pay 400 rupees for one of superior quality. The breed of shepherds' dogs is also excellent. The broad-sword exercise and shooting at a mark are favourite amusements with the Brahoocés, and, as swordsmen, they are said to surpass most of their neighbours. Their common dress is an under coat which fits close to the body, and is worn over the pyrahun or shirt; their trowsers are gathered up at the ancle, and they wear a small round flat-topped cap of felt silk. The shepherds wear a covering of white felt above the shirt in winter, with cloth trowsers and a small felt cap. Petty quarrels are usually adjusted by the chief of the khail or society; but an appeal in capital cases may be made to Kelat, except when a traveller has been murdered, on which emergencies the nearest chief is authorized to carry the law into execution.

In religion, both the Baloochies and Brahoocés are of the orthodox Soonee sect of Mahomedans, and strenuous adversaries to the Shias. Neither the Baloochy nor the Brahooee are written languages, and the early history of both tribes is entirely traditional. On examining the translation of the Lord's Prayer into the Baloochy dialect, the missionaries found only four words of Sanscrit origin. The Baloochy partakes considerably of the idiom of the modern Persian, from which at least half its words are borrowed, but greatly disguised by a peculiar pronunciation. The Brahooee, on the contrary, in no respect resembles the Persian in sound, but contains a great many Hindu words, having a strong resemblance as they strike the ear to the Punjabee dialect. The Dehwars

of Baloochistan speak pure Persian, and resemble in every respect the Tajiks of Afghanistan. Among the dispersed societies of Baloochistan there are a few Hindoos scattered, who carry on the miserable traffic of the country, and act as money-changers, and agents to the native chiefs. It is probable that long after the first Mahomedan invasion, a great proportion of the country still continued in the occupation of the Hindoos; but for more than a century past, the Mahomedan tribes have been progressively so increasing in barbarity that no medium could be observed, and the native Hindoos have either undergone compulsory conversion, or deserted the country. A converted tribe of Hindoos, at present settled in Cutch Gundava, still retain the name of Gooroowanee, or disciples of the Gooroo, or Brahminical priest. The few Hindoos who migrate to this quarter from Hindoostan, for the purposes of trade, seldom bring their families, and have probably degenerated, as travellers have not observed among them that repugnance to flesh meat which characterizes most of the purer castes of India.

More than two centuries ago the city of Kelat, with the surrounding country, was possessed by Sewah Raja, a Hindoo, at which period the Baloochies (as at present) tended flocks in the mountains. The inhabitants were then much infested by the depredations of the people residing in the low country lying between Kelat, Sinde, and Shikarpoor; and to protect them, the Raja sent for Kumbar (which in the Baloochy signifies an Abyssinian) a Baloochy chief, and took him into his service, allowing him five bundles of grass and wood daily for each man. In progress of time this chief increased his followers, and seizing on the government, raised the tribute to 100 bundles of grass and wood per day, besides a contribution of horses, camels, and foot-runners. This tribute is still occasionally exacted by the khans of Kelat, and paid by the dehwars, or peasantry, in the neighbourhood, who are said to have come originally from Persia, although they have much the appearance of Hindoos.

Kumbar, the first usurper, was succeeded by his son

Sumbur, the father of the next prince,

Mahomed Khan; who was succeeded by his son,

Abdallah Khan, the father of

Nassir Khan, who ascended the throne after putting to death his brother Hadjee Khan. Nassir Khan performed some important services to Nadir Shah, who rewarded him with the donation of several provinces; and being a man of considerable abilities, greatly extended the Baloochistan dominions, which he left in a comparatively flourishing state, at his death in 1795, to his eldest son, Mahmood Khan, who then ascended the throne. Since that period the territories subject to Kelat have been greatly curtailed by the Ameers of Sinde and other neighbouring princes, the talents of Mahmood Khan being very inferior to those of his father. In conducting affairs he was greatly assisted by his brother, Mustapha Khan, who proved of an active and martial disposition; but since 1810 Baloochistan has been involved in such incessant broils and revolutions, that the semblance of government has also disappeared. In 1811, Mustapha Khan above-mentioned was assassinated by his younger brother, who, in 1812, was killed in battle against the forces of Mahmood Khan, the eldest brother.

In 1815 the territory immediately subject to Mahmood Khan comprised the high hilly country of Sewistan, and the low country of Cutch Gundava and Hurrund Dajil, to the eastward; bounded on the north by the ill-defined province of Khorassan; south by Lus and Sinde; on the west by Mekran: and on the east by Sinde. In 1810 his whole clear revenue was only 350,000 rupees, collected from Hur-

rund Dajil, Cutch Gundava, and the bazar tolls of Kelat. The Khans of Baloochistan acknowledge the paramount authority of the Cabul sovereigns, to whom they are feudatories; but the degree of their submission is in proportion to the talents of the reigning prince, and the political circumstances of the Cabul government. Formerly it was supposed that, upon a grand emergency, that the Baloochistan dominions could produce 25,000 infantry and cavalry; but so large a number has never yet been collected together, nor would it be an easy matter, in so barren a country, without navigable rivers, to subsist them if they were. —(*Pottinger, Christie, Macdonald, &c.*)

Balwunt.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, thirteen miles south from the city of Cuttack. At this place there is a choultry for the accommodation of the Juggernaut pilgrims, having a temple of Narsingh (the man lion) in the centre.

Balumba.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the Gulf of Cutch; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 70° 36′ E.

Bambarah.—The ruins of a city in the province of Mooltan, lying on the west side of the city of Tatta, and conjectured to be those of an ancient city named Brahminabad by Persian authors, who report it to have been the capital of a flourishing Hindoo kingdom in the tenth century. They also name it Mahaura and Manhawar. The site of Bambarah was on a hill covered with trees and bushes, and exhibits in the neighbourhood many tombs of Sindian warriors, who fell in a battle between Gholaum Shah and Meer Ali.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Bameeny (*Vamani*).—An island in the province of Bengal formed by the sediment deposited by the waters of the great Ganges and Brahmaputra, where they unite with the ocean in the Bay of Bengal, under the name of the Megna. In length it may be estimated at twelve miles, by five the average breadth; but its surface is very little raised above the level of the tide, which here runs with frightful strength and rapidity. At Bameeny there is a government establishment for the manufacture of salt, subordinate to the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Bamian.—A city subject to the Afghan sovereigns of Cabul, which, although so far to the west, was subject with the district to the Delhi throne during the reign of the great Emperor Acber, as appears by the following extract from Abul Fazel, A D. 1582. " In the district of Zohak Bamian is the castle of Zohak, a monument of great antiquity, which is in good condition, while the fortress of Bamian is in ruins. Tooman Zohak Bamian 861,750 dams."

This famous city, the Thebes of the east, is situated in lat. 34° 30′ N., lon. 66° 57′ E., on the road between Cabul and Bahlac, eight days' journey from the latter place. Like Thebes of Egypt it is entirely cut out of an insulated mountain. To the south of it, at the distance of two miles, are the ruins of an ancient city named Ghulguleh, which according to tradition was destroyed at a very early period by the Mahomedans. The city of Bamian consists of a vast number of apartments and recesses cut out of the rock, some of which, on account of their extraordinary appearance, are supposed to have been temples. By Abul Fazel there were reckoned to be 12,000 of these recesses in the district of Bamian. The attention of travellers, however, is principally attracted by two colossal statues, fifty cubits high, which are erect, and adhere to the mountains in niches. At some distance from these two is a smaller one, fifteen cubits high. One of the large statues is supposed to represent a male, and the other a female, and the small one their son. They are all much disfigured, and the legs of the male broken; for the Mahommedans never march that way without firing two or three shots at them, but owing to their want of skill they seldom do

much mischief. From the numerous fragments remaining, it would appear as if there had been many hundred statues, the existence of which, and of the excavations, would indicate that the inhabitants had at one time followed some branch of the Hindoo religion. When Praun Poory, the noted Hindoo ascetic, visited this place between 1770 and 1780, he was struck with the number of statues that still remained, although the place had long been deserted by its inhabitants. In A.D. 1220 it was taken and destroyed by Gengis Khan.—(*Wilfurd, Duncan, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

BAMINEE RIVER.—A considerable stream, formed by the junction of several others which rise in the mountains of Gundwana. It traverses the province of Cuttack, and uniting with a branch of the Mahanaddy called the Beroopa, proceeds with it to the sea, which it joins near Point Palmiras.

BAMINWAS.—A small town in the province of Agra, about fifty-eight miles travelling distance from the city of Jeypoor. It covers both slopes of a steep and rocky ridge, insulated from the plain. The interior is meanly built, but it contains several Hindoo temples.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BAMOO.—(See BHANMO.)

BAMORI *(or Bamouree.)*—A small village in the province of Delhi, situated on the northern confines of the Bareilly district, forty-one miles travelling distance S. from Almora; lat. ° N., lon. ′ E. It is now the principal thoroughfare between Rohilcund and Kumaon, an excellent road twelve feet wide having been constructed, with great labour and expense, between Bamori and the fortress of Almora. This road in some places is cut out of the solid rock; in others supported by parapet walls winding round the face of a hill. It is carried directly over the crest of the great Goggar mountain, which rises to the height of 7,696 feet above the level of the sea, the road crossing at an elevation of 7,200 feet. The village itself is situated in the great Saul forest, near the base of the Kumaon hills, and close under them, two miles from the village, there is a cleared spot, with a commissariat dépôt for troops and travellers.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BAMPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-five miles S.S.E. from the city of Oojein; lat. 22° 40′ N., lon. 78° 5′ E.

BAMPOORA.—A considerable town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Rewa river, 1,344 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The fort of Bampoora has never been finished, but the walls are well built, and within them is a palace (also unfinished) begun by Jeswunt Row Holcar, of whom it contains a statue sculptured in white marble. In 1820 the number of houses was estimated at 4,000, and the city with the pergunnahs attached formed part of the dominions of Mulhar Row Holcar.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BAMRAGHUR.—A town in the Orissa province, eighty miles N.W. from Cuttack; lat. 21° 3′ N., lon. 85° 2′ E. To the south of this place are some iron mines and forges.

BANASS RIVER *(Vanasa.)*—The source of this river is in the province of Ajmeer, but the exact spot has never been ascertained. In passing through that tract it attains to a considerable bulk, and even when pursuing its course from Deesa through the Mehwas, its size is not insignificant; but it afterwards loses itself in the Kakreze, and by the time it reaches Rahdunpoor is reduced from various causes to a small stream. Three miles below Rahdunpoor the bed of the Banass is half a mile broad, but during the dry season not more than twenty yards of this space contains water, the current being two feet and a half deep, and the water of an excellent quality. In this part of its course the banks are nearly on a level with the surrounding country, which is inundated during the rains

to the extent of two miles. Twenty-five miles below Rahdunpoor the Banass is wholly lost in the great salt morass named the Runn.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

Banaganapilly.—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated at the northern extremity of the Curnoul plain, commencing at the southern range of hills near Cuddapah; lat. 15° 18′ N., lon. 78° 18′ E. This village stands at the foot of a low range of hills where the diamond mines are found. The miners here are content to sift and examine the old rubbish, from a prevailing opinion, common also elsewhere, that the diamond is always growing, and that the chips and small pieces rejected by former searchers, actually increase in size, and in process of time become large diamonds. The matrix of the diamonds produced in the south of India is the sandstone breccia of the clay slate formation, and those found in alluvial soil are produced from the debris of that rock. —(*Heyne, Voysey, &c.*)

Banaul.—A small district or valley in the province of Cashmere, situated among the southern hills. The village thus named stands in lat. 33° 56′ N., lon. 75° 13′ E., forty miles S.E. from the city of Cashmere. Five miles distance to the south-east of Banaul begins a boundary of a division of the Cashmere territory, lying beyond the great circle of mountains. The governors of Cashmere permit the fertile valley of Banaul, ten miles in length, to remain uncultivated, that it may not afford food or shelter to the neighbouring Hindoo states in the kohistan of Lahore, who at some former period penetrated through this tract to the interior passes of Cashmere. The Banaul district is elevated, and looks down on the plains of Cashmere.—(*Foster, &c.*)

Banca.—An island lying off the north-eastern coast of Sumatra, from which it is separated by the straits of Banca. In length it may be estimated at 135 miles by thirty-five the average breadth. Monopin, a high mountain with a peak a few miles north of Mintaow, the capital, is an excellent landmark for the entrance to the straits.

The geological formation of this island is a primary rock, the principal mountains being granite, those of an inferior elevation a red iron-stone; and between these two the tin is found in alluvial deposits, seldom lower than twenty-five feet from the surface. As yet only about 3,400 geographical square miles have been surveyed, the mines now worked being confined to the north-west quarters; but from one extremity to the other, the existence of tin has been ascertained in all the alluvial tracts, and it probably abounds also in the mountains. The ore found is the common oxide of tin, mostly of a reddish brown colour, and it is washed in the numerous mountain streams that distinguish the scenery of Banca. A great majority of the miners are natives of China, and notwithstanding the difference of climate, and the severity of their occupation, they appear to enjoy good health.

Tin in every language of the eastern islands is known by the name of timah, a word presumed to be of Malay origin. Its geographical distribution comprehends Banca, the Malay peninsula and its isles, and Junkceylon, whereas in Europe its range is confined to a very few places. It is so abundant in this island, that in 1813 the British government, by paying an additional price per picul, increased the quantity to 2,083 tons, or about half the whole produce of Cornwall. China and the continent of India are the principal markets for exportation.

The inhabitants of Banca are Malays, Chinese, and indigenes, the last subdivided into mountaineers and men of the sea. The first are few and indolent; the second laborious and active; the third remarkable for laziness and rude simplicity. These live dispersed over large tracts of country in the interior, subsisting

nearly in a state of nature, and averse to European society, and all restraint or habits of regular industry. The men of the sea (Rayads or Orang Laut) appear to be the remains of a peculiar people, who with their families and household gods inhabit small prows along the sheltered bays of the coast, and procure their food by fishing.

Banca lies opposite to the river Palembang in Sumatra, where the nominal sovereign of the island resides, at his capital, named Palembang. In 1813 the island and mines were ceded by the Sultan to the British government, and taken possession of with a view to the suppression of piracy. In 1817 they were made over to the King of the Netherlands. The chief town is named Mintow.—(*Crawfurd, Raffles, Marsden, Thorn, Staunton, Stavorinus, Elmore, &c.*)

Banca *(Straits of)*.—The island of Sumatra forms the western, and that of Banca the eastern side of the straits, in passing through which the Sumatran coast may be approached nearer than the other. The country is covered with wood down to the water's edge, and the shores so low that the sea overflows the land, and washes the trunks of the trees. The depth of water is very irregular, at some parts shoaling in one cast of the lead from twelve to seven fathoms, and in others from seven to four. There are also coral banks so near the surface, as to be easily distinguished by the white colour of the water over them. The straits of Banca should always be entered with a favourable monsoon, according to the destination of the vessel.—(*Staunton, King, &c.*)

Banca.—A very small island in the Eastern seas, surrounded by a cluster still smaller lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 1° 50′ N., lon. 125° E. This island abounds in cocoa-nuts, limes, jacks, fish, turtle, and rattans, has a harbour at its south end, and is well inhabited. Near Banca is the harbour of Tellusyang, called Talesse by Valentyn, at which are some wild cattle, but no inhabitants. These islands are much frequented by piratical cruizers from Magindanao and Sooloo.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Bancallan.—A town on Madura, the residence of the sultan of the island; lat. 7° 2′ S., lon. 112° 45′ E. This place is large and populous. The fort is close to the palace, and the environs are pleasant, having good roads, interspersed with country-seats and pleasure grounds.—(*Thorn, &c.*)

Bancapoor.—This district occupies the southern extremity of the Bejapoor province, and was formerly distinguished by the name of Shahnoor or Savanore. It extends along the north bank of the Wurda and Toombuddra rivers. The principal towns are Shahnoor and Bancapoor.

Bancapoor *(or Benkypoor)*.—This was formerly a place of importance, and strongly fortified until dismantled by Tippoo during one of his campaigns against the Maharattas. It lies about six miles N.E. from the city of Shahnoor, in the Bejapoor province.

Bancoorah.—The civil station of the Jungle Mehals, situated on the verge of the hilly tract that forms the western boundary of Bengal, about ninety-eight miles from Calcutta, and in a beautiful healthy country. The town itself is quite of modern construction, and as yet of small dimensions, but unusually open and neat for a Hindoo population. The most remarkable public building is an excellent serai, built at the charge of government for the accommodation of travellers, and exhibiting almost a solitary exception to their niggardly neglect of similar institutions.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bancoot.—(*See* Fort Victoria.)

Band.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on a small bund or lake, fifteen miles east of Teary. Lat. 24° 44′ N., lon. 79° 3′ E.

Banda.—The Banda isles, situated about 120 miles E.S.E. from Amboy-

na, are twelve in number, *viz.* Banda Neira, Goonong Api, Banda Lantoir, Pulo Way, Pulo Run, Roysyngen, Pulo Pinang, Craka, Capella, and Souangy. Banda Neira, lying in lat. 4° 30′ S., lon. 130° E., is the seat of the supreme government of the whole. It has a spacious harbour, but of difficult entrance, with a seven feet rise of tide. Ships anchor under the cannon of two forts, named Belgica and Naussau.

The next island is that of Lantoir, or Banda proper, which is about eight miles in length, and at the eastern extremity five miles in breadth. The third and fourth isles in importance are those of Pulo Way and Pulo Run, and at these four only did the Dutch East-India Company permit the cultivation of the nutmeg-tree. On Rosyngen there is a redoubt, to which state prisoners were formerly banished; and Goonong Api has a volcano constantly vomiting smoke, and often flame. Under the Dutch there were several other islands known by the appellation of the South-Western and South-Eastern islands, whose inhabitants supplied the Dutch colonists with provisions in exchange for piece goods and other articles.

The Banda isles are all high and volcanic. The soil is a rich black mould covered with trees, chiefly nutmegs, of which the Dutch East-India Company were the absolute proprietors, as well as of the slaves who took care of them. The rearing of nutmegs being the grand object, the isles were subdivided into a certain number of plantations, under the management of a mixed breed of Europeans and Indians, either as temporary proprietors or lessees. The nutmeg tree grows to the size of a pear tree, with a leaf like the laurel, and although two out of three turn out barren, it cannot be discovered until the twelfth or fourteenth year, and it dies about the twenty-fourth year. Each tree, while bearing, will on an average produce ten pounds per annum. The total quantity of nutmeg and mace (a membraneous substance that envelopes the nutmeg) produced has never been clearly ascertained.

Besides provisions furnished annually from Batavia by the Dutch, piece goods, cutlery, iron, and other commodities, were imported. The Dutch burghers and Chinese re-export these articles to Aroo, Papua, Ceram, and the south-east islands, and receive in return from Ceram, sago in bread and flour, and sometimes salted deer; from Aroo and the others, pearls, birds'-nests, birds of paradise, tortoiseshell, and from all slaves. The Banda isles were captured by the British in 1796; restored at the peace of Amiens in 1801; re-taken in 1810, and restored in 1817.—(*Stavorinus, Asiatic Register, &c.*)

BANDA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated about ninety miles west from that fortress, and as the residence of the public functionaries, at present the modern capital of Bundelcund. Lat. 25° 30′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E. This place, which a few years ago was a moderate sized village, is now become a large and bustling town, its prosperity having been greatly accelerated by the gunge or mart, and some other works erected by Mr. Richardson while judge and magistrate. The Banda cotton has obtained of late years in the European market a superiority over the Jaloun.—(*F. Buchanan, Gutthrie, &c.*)

BANDA.—A small town, the head of a pergunnah in the province of Gujerat and district of Surat. It is a jungly country, inhabited by Dooblas and Dooreas. The Raja's revenue is about 60,000 rupees, and pays a tribute to the British government of 7,800 rupees.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

BANDELL.—An old Portuguese town in the province of Bengal, district of Hooghly, and immediately adjoining the town of Hooghly. At this place there is a good Roman Catholic church, and also a monastery.

BANDITTI ISLE.—A small island

about twenty miles in circumference situated in the straits of Lombhook, but why it received its present evil appellation, in preference to many others similarly situated, does not appear. Lat. 8° 50′ S., lon. 115° 25′ E.

BANDON.—A seaport town belonging to the Siamese, situated on the west side of the gulf of Siam, at the mouth of a river navigable for vessels not drawing more than fourteen feet of water.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

BANDONG.—An inland town of Java situated in a swampy country, on the high road from Buitzenzorg to Cheribon, E.S.E. from Batavia. Lat. 6° 45′, lon 107° 35′ E.

BANDOOGUR.—A town in the province of Gundwana, district of Boghela, eighty miles north from Mundlah. Lat. 23° 50′ N., lon. 81° E. In the time of Aurungzebe, Baundhoo or Bhatta was the name of the northern portion of Gundwana, then, although actually independent, annexed by edict to the Mogul province of Allahabad.—(*Jas. Grant, &c.*)

BANDORA.—A village on the island of Salsette, opposite to Mahim, on the island of Bombay, with which it communicates by a regular ferry.

BANGALORE (*Bangalura*).—A large fortified town in the Mysore Raja's territories, seventy miles N.E. from Seringapatam; lat. 12° 57′ N., lon. 77° 38′ E. The surface here is an undulating table land, nearly 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, but there are no high hills within many miles. The fall to the north of Bangalore, after passing Nundydroog, is very rapid, and the summit of Paughur, which rises from its base, is nearly on a level with the plateau of Bangalore. In the country further west, after passing the range of hills on which Severndroog, Paughur, and other elevated stations are situated, the surface has a sudden descent, and continues low considerably to the west of Seringapatam, where it begins to ascend again, on approaching the western ghauts. In A.D. 1800 the thermometer here never rose higher than 82°, or fell below 56° Fahrenheit. The cypress and vine grow luxuriantly, the apple and peach produce fruit, and strawberries are raised in the sultan's garden.

The fortress of Bangalore is a regular work of great extent, entirely detached from the town, and constructed of the most solid materials. It is surrounded by a ditch of remarkable depth cut in the solid rock, with a spacious glacis, and but for its round bastions and intricate entrances, might pass for a European citadel. Tippoo's palace, built of mud, with halls enclosed by high pointed Saracenic arches and painted walls and ceilings, has still a lively appearance, and it has lately been patched in an incongrous style of architecture by the Mysore Raja, being occasionally used for public entertainments. The town or pettah of Bangalore is composed of tolerably well sized houses, some of two stories, but universally built of the red earth of the country, and roofed with tiles. The principal bazar is wide and regular, and ornamented on both sides by rows of cocoa-nut trees. The pettah is enclosed with a double line of fortification, the walls also of red mud, the space between the inner and outer defences being protected by a thick bound hedge of bamboos and jungle. The cantonment stands about two miles from the pettah, and is remarkably extensive and complete, the squares of barracks being on a great scale, and hedged gardens attached to the officer's bungalows. Besides these accommodations for the military, there is a handsome race-stand, an assembly and reading-room, and several well-stocked Europe shops. In 1805 the total population was estimated at 60,000 souls.

The cloths made here being entirely for country use, and never exported to Europe, are made of different sizes to adapt them to the uses of the natives. The Hindoos seldom employ tailors, but wrap round their bodies the web as it comes from the loom.

The silk-weavers make cloth of a very strong fabric of the silk that is imported in a raw state, but which in time may be raised in the country. The introduction of the silk-worm has not yet succeeded in the lower Carnatic, but there is reason to believe the country above the ghauts, having a more temperate climate, will be found more suitable. At the weekly markets cotton is bought up by the poor women of all castes, except the Brahmin, for these never spin, nor do their husbands ever plough the soil. The females of all other castes spin, and at the weekly markets sell the thread to the weavers.

At Bangalore there are many inhabitants of the Mahomedan religion, and owing to the change of government many of them at first suffered great distress. Above the ghauts, that species of leprosy in which the skin becomes white is very common among the natives. The persons troubled with it enjoy in every other respect good health, and their children are like those of other people. The only year used above the ghauts is the chandramanam or lunar year, by which among the Brahmins all religious ceremonies are performed. At Bangalore the christian era of A.D. 1800 corresponded with the year 4893 of the Cali Yug, and 1722 of Salivahanam, which last is in universal use in the south of India. This place was first acquired by the Mysore state in 1687, during the reign of Chick Deo Raj, and was stormed by the army under Lord Cornwallis in 1791. Travelling distance from Seringapatam seventy-four miles; from Madras 215; and from Hyderabad 352 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, Wilks, Lord Valentia, Col. Lambton, A. H. Hamilton, &c.*)

Banguey.—A small island situated off the northern extremity of Borneo, twenty-three miles in length, eleven the average breadth, on which there is a small fresh-water river and plenty of turtle. Lat. 7° 15′ N., lon. 117° 25′ E.

Baniack *(or Pulo Baniack)*.—A small island lying off the west coast of Sumatra, lat. 2° 10′ N. In length it may be estimated at seventeen miles by seven the average breadth. This island is known by a peaked hill resembling a sugar-loaf on the north end of it, and it has a chain of islets to the north east.

Banjarmassin.—A town and district on the south-eastern coast of Borneo, lat. 3° S., long 114° 55′ E. The river Banjarmassin has a shallow bar at the entrance, over which a boat, though light, cannot float until after the first quarter of the flood. Ships anchoring in the harbour of Tombanjou and Tombornio near the mouth of the river can be supplied with water, poultry, and fish. Many Chinese reside permanently here and in the neighbourhood, from whence they carry on a considerable trade with the mother country. The imports to Banjarmassin consist of opium, piece goods, coarse cutlery, gunpowder, small cannon, and fire-arms; the exports are pepper, camphor, gold-dust, wax, rattans, birds'-nests, biche de mar, and some spices. The steel procured here has always been reckoned of a superior quality.

In 1706 the East-India Company settled a factory and expensive establishment, but next year were expelled by the natives, instigated, it was supposed, by the Chinese, with considerable slaughter, and a loss of fifty thousand dollars. The Dutch also continued as profitless a settlement here from 1747 to 1810, when it was by agreement abandoned to the Malay sultan by Marechal Daendels, for the sum of 50,000 Spanish dollars. After the conquest of Java, however, the British appear to have claimed a predominance, as Banjarmassin had again become dependent on Java, and was garrisoned by colonials under the British resident. It was restored to the Dutch in 1817, and in 1825 (with Pontianat, Sambas, and Mamoowah) was described as enjoying tranquillity, trade flourishing, the pepper culture reviving, and the newly elected sultan friendly.—(*Bruce, Stavorinus, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

BANKEE.—A town in the province of Cuttack, the capital of a tributary zemindarry thirty miles west from the city of Cuttack. The extreme dimensions of this estate from north to south are thirty miles, and twenty-five from east to west. The produce consists of coarse rice, sugar-cane, cotton, oil, tobacco, and different sorts of grain. The annual tribute paid to government is 4,162; the supposed profit to the zemindar 20,000 rupees.—(*Richardson, &c.*)

BANKOK.—This is an ancient port but modern capital, having been selected for the seat of government by the Chinese king Piatac, after the capture and plunder of Juthia by the Burmese in 1766. Lat. 13° 40′ N., lon. 101° 10′ E. It extends along the banks of the Menam river, which is here about a quarter of a mile broad, without including the space on each side occupied by the floating houses. It carries down a large body of water mixed with soft mud, and its depth even close to the banks is from five to ten fathoms; the rate of its current about three miles per hour.

This place is almost entirely built of wood, the king's palaces, the temples, and the houses of a few favoured chiefs being the only edifices of brick or mud: fires are in consequence frequent and destructive. It has scarcely any fortifications, but the bar at the mouth of the river prevents the ascent of large ships. The houses rarely extend more than two hundred yards from the river; indeed by far the greater number float on bamboo rafts moored along the banks. Those on shore are built on posts driven into the mud, and raised above high flood and the annual inundation. There are consequently scarcely any roads, or even pathways, a small boat or canoe being the usual locomotive vehicle, the few streets in Bankok being only passable during dry weather. The floating houses are moored in rows of eight, ten or more in depth from the bank. They are of an oblong form, built of boards, and towards the river provided with a covered platform, on which merchandize, fruits, rice, meat, &c. are displayed, composing altogether a sort of floating bazar. At one end they are bound to strong bamboos driven into the river, and every one has a small attendant boat or canoe.

A large proportion of the inhabitants are Chinese, who appear in fact to compose three-fourths of the population, which has been estimated to amount to from 30,000 to 40,000 persons. The most common trades are tinsmiths, blacksmiths, and curriers, all Chinese. The manufacture of tin vessels is very considerable, and deer and buffaloe hides are tanned and prepared for exportation. Nearly all the junks that carry on the trade between the eastern islands and China are built here, the station being selected as well for the convenience of the harbour, as for the extraordinary abundance and cheapness of fine timber, especially teak, supplied by the Siamese forests. The food of the Chinese here is so excessively gross and fat, that it is surprising their stomachs can digest it. Pork is their favourite diet, oil in large quantities is swallowed, and the vegetables are brought to table floating in a sea of fat. The food of the native Siamese is principally rice and balachang. Besides the Chinese, the miscellaneous population of Bankok consists of Siamese, native Christians of Siam and Cambodia, Burmese, Peguers, Malays, and natives of Laos.

The chief temple here is of a pyramidical form, terminating in a slender spire about 200 feet high. The interior is a single lofty chamber about fifty feet long, and nearly as much in breadth, paved with stones, and having in the centre numerous small figures of Buddha, intermingled with small bits of looking-glass, scraps of gilt paper, and Chinese paintings. Fabulous legends from Hindoo mythology are delineated on the interior walls of the temples, and in one of them two coarse paintings of French ladies as shepherdesses were seen

suspended by the members of the embassy in 1823. Gilt figures of Buddha are innumerable, made of cast iron, brass, wood or clay, but all of a wonderful uniformity. Some are of enormous size, one in particular thirty feet high, of gilt wood, intended to pass for copper. The Prachadi (called by the Buddhists of Ceylon Dagoba) is a solid building of masonry, without an aperture or hollow of any sort. It is generally built in the neighbourhood of some temple, but is not itself an object of worship. In Bankok there are a few Brahmins, who are supported by the king, and have a small temple of their own.—(*Finlayson, Crawfurd, Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

BANKYBAZAR.—A small town on the east side of the Hooghly river, eighteen miles north from Calcutta; lat. 22° 46′ N., lon. 38° 28′ E. The Dutch last century had a factory here, from which they were expelled by Aliverdi Khan; of both factory and town hardly a vestige is now to be seen. Within a short distance from hence are the remains of a once strong and extensive fortress named Simookghur, of which a plan is given by Major Rennell in the Bengal Atlas. (*Fullarton, &c.*)

BANSBAREA.—A town in the Bengal province, situated on the east bank of the Hooghly, three miles and a half N.N.W. from the town of Hooghly. Including two adjoining villages it forms a considerable town. To the north are some ruins of Mahomedan buildings of stone, a material very rarely met with in this part of India.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BANSWARA.—The capital of a small independent native state in the province of Gujerat, district of Bagur. Lat. 23° 31′ N., lon. 74° 32′ E. The town of Banswara is a handsome place for this quarter of India, and the walls include a large circuit, but a good deal of the space is occupied by gardens. There are also some handsome temples, and a tolerable bazar, in which a considerable number of Mahomedans are seen. At some distance is a pool of water, with some ruinous temples on it, and a stately flight of steps overhung by palms, peepuls, and tamarind-trees; and beyond it on the crown of a woody hill, the towers of a large castle. This formerly was the palace of Banswara. The territories attached are divided into seven districts, yielding in 1820 an annual revenue of about 2,07,860 rupees, of which amount 1,01,625 go to the treasury, 96,547 to the subordinate Rajpoot chieftains, and 9,694 rupees to religious mendicants. In 1820 there were one thousand families of Gujerat Brahmins in Banswara. In 1824 the gross revenue was expected to reach five lacks.

This principality is mentioned by Abul Fazel, and was formerly possessed by a branch of the Odeypoor Rajpoots, but the two families have been long separated. The present Rawul (of the Doongurpoor family), or prince of Banswara, named Bhowanny Singh, in 1820 had thirty-two dependent Rajpoot chiefs, who kept their quotas of fighting men in readiness for the service of the state, amounting to 179 horse and 660 foot, besides 200 of the Rawul's own troops. His authority is paramount throughout the whole state, as he alone has authority to inflict capital punishment; but he is himself tributary to the British government. In the immediate vicinity of Banswara the lands are irrigated from tanks. In the wilder districts the Bheels, who follow no regular plan of agriculture, compose the bulk of the inhabitants. When Malwa and the neighbouring provinces fell into their late state of anarchy, the Banswara principality was reduced to a condition of extreme misery; from which it was relieved by the British government, to which it pays a small tribute for protection. In 1824 the Raja of Banswara was twenty-four years of age, and had been on the throne five years.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BANTAM (*Bantan*).—A town in

Java, once the capital of a district of the same name, containing 3,428 square miles, situated at the western extremity of the island; lat. 6° S., lon. 106° 13′ E., forty-seven miles west from Batavia. This once flourishing city has now nothing to exhibit but ruins, the fortifications, both native and European, as well as the sultan's palace, having been long levelled with the ground. The bay of Bantam also, which in early times was the principal rendezvous of foreign shipping, is so choked up with daily accessions of new earth washed down from the mountains and coral shoals, that it is now inaccessible. Placed on a low swampy beach, surrounded by jungle, and intersected by stagnant water, its climate has always been signally destructive to European constitutions, and even the natives suffer extremely from the marsh fever.

In A.D. 1674 the King of Bantam equipped ships on his own account, and sent them with produce to the coast of India, and even into the Persian Gulf; but Bantam had lost all its importance long before the British conquest of Java. The succession to the throne was generally dispensed by the Dutch, but until the beginning of the present century the administration of the police and collection of the port duties was confided to the chief. In 1808, in consequence of an insurrection, the reigning prince was banished to Amboyna, and a relative placed on the throne; but disturbances not ceasing, a new sultan was installed in the high country, while the Dutch functionaries assumed the direct management of the low. Notwithstanding these precautions, a rebellion under the Pangeran Ahmed continued to agitate the interior until the arrival of the British army in 1811, when it became necessary to make a general settlement of the district under European control.

In 1813 the sultan voluntarily made over all his rights to the British government in consideration of an annual pension of 10,000 dollars. An accurate survey of the province was then completed, and a settlement of the land revenue effected with each individual cultivating on the ryotwar system, and in this condition it was delivered over to the functionaries delegated by his majesty the King of the Netherlands.

When the Portuguese first visited Java, in A.D. 1511, they found a Hindoo kingdom in Bantam, which subsequently declined on the arrival and establishment of the Mahomedan sultan some time in the sixteenth century, certainly prior to the settlement of the Dutch at Batavia in 1620. In 1690 the Danes and English were expelled from Bantam. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the province of Bantam contained 231,604 persons, of whom 628 were Chinese, all noted cock-fighters. The Java fighting-cocks are of a very large breed; the fowl which we improperly call the Bantam cock is not found in Java, except as a curiosity. Since the Dutch reassumed the government in 1817 they have abandoned Bantam, the native capital, and retired to a more elevated station seven miles inland, named Sirang or Ceram.—(*Raffles, Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Banyuwangy.—A town and district in the island of Java, situated at the eastern extremity on the straits of Bally, 728 miles travelling distance from Batavia; lat. 8° 7′ S., lon. 114° 15′ E. The town is a military post of some consequence, being necessary to restrain the depredations of the pirates who infest the neighbouring seas and straits. The town is populous, the country well cultivated, and reputed healthy. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the division of Banyuwangy (1,274 square miles) contained 8,873 inhabitants, of which number 319 were Chinese. This district contains the great volcanic mountain named Goonong mar-api, which is said to be of such a height that near the summit water freezes. All the volcanoes of Java afford sulphur, but

the most abundant supply is obtained from hence, and in such a state of purity, as to require no further preparation. The country in its immediate vicinity is uninhabited.—(*Crawford, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

Bar.—A town of considerable trade and great extent in the province of Bahar, but of mean appearance. It stands on the south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 28′, lon. 85° 46′ E. Including Masurgunge, it is estimated to contain 5,000 houses.

Bara.—A town in the province of Ajmeer belonging to the Raja of Kolah, which in 1820 contained 2,000 houses.

Barabutty (*Barabati*).—An ancient fortress in the province of Orissa, situated about a mile from the town of Cuttack, and supposed to have been built in the fourteenth century. Its square sloping towers and bastions, and general style, bespeak a Hindoo origin. The Mahomedans or Maharattas subsequently added a round bastion and some other works. The fort has double walls of stone, which enclose a rectangular area of 2,150 feet by 1,800 feet. A noble ditch faced with masonry surrounds the whole, measuring in the broadest part 220 feet across. From the centre rises a huge square cavalier supporting a flag-staff, which, combined with the loftiness of the battlements towards the river, give the whole an imposing castellated appearance when viewed from the opposite side of the Mahanuddy. No traces of the famous palace of Raja Mukund Deo, nine stories high as narrated by Abul Fazel, are now to be found.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

Barahat.—A town in northern Hindostan, the modern capital of the Gurwal Raja, forty-eight miles N.N.W. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 45′ N., lon. 78° 22′ E. It stands on the north-west bank of the Ganges, and in 1815 was a most wretched place, consisting of only five or six houses, surrounded with filth, and almost buried in a jungle of nettles, thorns, and other rank weeds. At a bend of the river below Barahat there is a jhoola or hanging bridge of ropes, over which the direct road leads to Serinagur. It is said at some former period to have been in a more flourishing condition, and it is probable that since the Nepaulese war, and the political vicissitudes which raised it to the rank of a metropolis, its circumstances have improved.—(*James Fraser, &c.*)

Baraitche.—A district in the province of Oude, extending along the north side of the Goggra river, and separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a lofty range of hills. A section of this country was ceded to the British government in 1800; but the greater proportion remains with the reserved territories of the nabob of Oude. The northern tracts towards the hills are covered with primeval forests, never visited by the axe; but towards the Goggra the country is open, fertile, and tolerably well cultivated. The principal rivers are the Goggra and Rapty, and the chief towns Baraitche and Bulram. Many of the old Patan race are found scattered over this district, and one of their chiefs still dignified with a title, as Khan of Baraitche.

Baraitche.—A town in the province of Oude, sixty-four miles north-east from Lucknow; lat. 27° 33′ N., lon. 81° 30′ E. In 1582 Abul Fazel describes it as a large city delightfully situated on the river side where Sultan Massaood and Rejib Sillar were buried and held in high estimation.

Barce.—A town belonging to the Rana of Dholpoor in the province of Agra, forty-two miles S.S.W. from Agra; lat. 26° 42′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E. The streets are narrow, but many of the houses, built of red stone, are two stories high, and have a comfortable appearance. It is chiefly inhabited by Patans, and contains several handsome Mahomedan tombs.—(*Broughton, &c.*)

Barcelore.—A town on the sea-

coast of the Canara province, fifty-five miles north by west from Mangalore; lat. 13° 37′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. By some this place has been conjectured, probably on account of its name, to have been the port Barace of the ancients.

Bareily *(Barali.)*.—A large district in the Delhi province, situated principally between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Kumaon hills; on the south by the Oude reserved territories, and the districts of Furruckabad and Alighur; on the east it has the Nabob's reserved territories, and on the west Moradabad, Alighur, and Furruckabad. When the institutes of Acber were compiled by Abul Fazel in 1582, it was comprehended in the circar of Budayoon, and described under that name; but the original appellation appears to have been Kuthair before the Rohilla conquest, subsequent to which it was incorporated with the province of Rohilcund.

The surface of the Bareily district is in general level, and plentifully watered by many small rivers, besides the Ganges bounding it to the west. To the north of Rampoor the Kosila river is navigable during the rains, and serves to float down large timber. In the neighbourhood of Acberabad the country is well cultivated, and cloth of a good quality is there manufactured. Around Cossipoor is moderately cultivated with sugar-canes and grain; but advancing towards Chilkiya much jungle is passed. Chilkiya is a considerable mart, to which the natives of the Kumaon hills, while still under the Gorkha tyranny, used to resort to exchange their goods for the produce of the plains. In 1803 the chief supplies brought from below were chintzes, gudjoes, salt, coarse sugar, cotton goods, coarse cutlery, cheap trinkets, coral, beads, and slave girls. The goods from above at that period were mostly transported on goats, by which mode they were conveyed from very great distances, even from Tibet. A kind of salt, called kurrah salt, was there extracted during the nitre-making process, and large quantities exported.

After the conquest of Rohilcund by the British troops for Shuja ud Dowlah in 1774, Bareily declined rapidly, from misgovernment; and extensive wastes, formerly under cultivation, were every where to be seen. In 1801 it was received in cession from the Nabob of Oude, and regularly partitioned into revenue and judicial subdivisions; since which its prosperity has progressively increased. In 1808 the jumma, or land assessment, yielded only 14,92,640 rupees; in 1813 the district of Bareily was stated to contain 4,458,380 cucha begas of land in cultivation, assessed with a jumma of 22,66,280 rupees, which was realized, being an average of about half a rupee per bega. It also contained 3,362,022 begahs fit for cultivation, but not in actual tillage, and 3,558,899 entirely waste. The jumma of 1813, for Bareily and Shahjehanpoor, amounted to about thirty-three lacks of rupees, and was collected from more than 1,200 landholders and renters. In summer, notwithstanding its northern latitude, the heat of this region is intense; but during the winter months, when the winds blow from the snowy mountains, the thermometer falls below 30°, and water freezes in the tents. There is nothing peculiar in the vegetable productions, except that Bareily is noted for a species of rice of excellent flavour named the basmati (pregnant with perfume), which is greatly superior to the finest sort of what is called Patna rice. The common hackery or cart in use throughout the Bareily district, and in most parts of Rohilcund, is a much larger and more commodious vehicle than that of Bengal, and capable of transporting a heavy load; but the roads and bridges here are better than in most parts of the Company's provinces.

The tribe of Banjaries (carriers and bullock drivers) are particularly

numerous in this district, having been estimated at 14,000. They are all converts from Hindooism to the Mahomedan faith, and boast of being descended from some of the most noble Rajpoot tribes, priding themselves on the warlike exploits of their Hindoo ancestors. Many of them repeat from memory long traditional poems, recording their martial deeds prior to the first Mahomedan invasion, or above eight centuries back. Besides carrying merchandize, the Banjaries find employment in cultivating lands and winnowing rice by contract with the neighbouring farmers.

The district of Bareily, including Shahjehanpoor, contains several large and populous towns, the chief of which are the two capitals. Pillibeet, Chandowsy, and Budayoon are also large towns, and the whole territory formerly swarmed with a race of warlike Mahomedans, ready to join any leader. Some thousands of this description served under Holcar, Jeswunt Row, and many with their countryman Ameer Khan. They were formerly disaffected to the British government, not because it was unjust or oppressive, but because there was no employment for them, and they were left inactive, without distinction or even subsistence. This turbulent race has gradually disappeared, having either sought employment elsewhere, or been gradually lost in the great mass of the population; at least crimes of a violent or heinous nature are not now more frequent in Bareily than elsewhere. The Rohillahs or Patans (for they go by both names) of this district are a tall and handsome race, and when compared with their more southern neighbours, are white and well-featured. There are but few Hindoo temples, and the two sects are probably on an equality in point of number; but classification or enumeration of the inhabitants has never taken place.—(*Deane, Gott, the Marquis of Hastings, Guthrie, Tennant, Sir H. Strachey, 5th Report, Fullarton, Glyn, &c.*)

Bareily.—A large town in the province of Delhi, the capital of the above district, situated on the banks of the united streams of the Jooah and Sunkra, about forty-two miles N.W. from the Ganges; lat. 28° 23′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E. The site of Bareily is elevated and pleasant, but the British civil station and cantonments are to the south of the town. The principal street or bazar is nearly two miles long, and tolerably well built; consisting, however, almost entirely of booths only one story high. One mosque, from its style of architecture and high position, has a striking appearance, and there are several other tolerable buildings of the same class. The old fort, situated at the western extremity of the main street, is crumbling to ruin, but after the insurrection of 1816, government judged it advisable to erect a small regular citadel on the plain to the south of the town, for the eventual protection of the European inhabitants should any similar commotion again occur. It is of a quadrangular form, has a good ditch, and two bastions projecting from opposite angles, an arrangement which gives the whole rather an odd appearance; but it is quite of sufficient strength for the object contemplated.

The lands in the vicinity of Bareily are not more elevated than eight feet above the Ramgunga, while the mountain streams by which the district is intersected lessen the expense and labour of cultivation, and by their annual inundations fertilize the soil. In A.D. 1822 the number of brick and mud houses and huts was 12,263; shops of ditto 1,663; total 13,926. The population then consisted of

Hindoos	40,205
Mahomedans	25,585
	65,790
Add Christians	5
Total population	65,795

The industry of the Mahomedans of Bareily is mostly confined to ma-

nufactures having relation to war, such as sword cutlery, bow and arrow making, saddlery, farriery, elephant, camel, or bullock-driving, horse-dealing, &c.; or to certain fine arts, inventions, and luxuries, probably imported by their forefathers from Persia and Arabia, such as the manufacture of fine carpets, embroidery, hookas, book-binding, and the trades of tobacco and beer dealers, engravers, turners, &c.; or, lastly, to trades which the Hindoos are prevented from exercising by religious obstacles, such as shoemakers, curriers, butchers, bakers, tailors, water-carriers, and milk dealers. Besides, Bareily is noted for the manufacture of brazen water-pots, and a particular description of European furniture, brilliantly varnished, black, and ornamented with a sort of yellow pigment, which presents so exact an imitation of gilding as scarcely to be distinguished on the closest inspection, and from hence many of the stations in the upper provinces are supplied with many household articles, both convenient and beautiful.

At present the inhabitants of the upper provinces, both Hindoos and Mahomedans, expend the greater part of their savings in ornaments, wearing much more silver and gold on their persons, and burying less in the ground, being now secure from robbers, and not, as formerly, exposed to the rapacity of native officers. The investment of money in ornaments and jewellery, in proportion to its amount, is probably much greater in the upper than the lower provinces of India, the wealthy classes in the latter preferring the government funds and other securities. Bareily having been the capital of a Mahomedan state, cows and oxen have been slaughtered here from time immemorial; at present the Hindoos are constantly petitioning and protesting against the perpetration of such sacrilege.

Bareily was the capital of Hafez Rehmut, a Rohillah chief, slain at the battle of Cutterah, and here he lies interred. In 1774 it was added along with the district to the dominions of Shujah ud Dowlah, then Nabob of Oude; and in 1801 transferred to the British, when it was made the head-quarters of a civil establishment and court of circuit, to which nine other districts are subordinate. In 1816 an alarming insurrection broke out here, which originated in an attempt to impose a small tax for the support of the police, and which was not suppressed without considerable difficulty and bloodshed. Travelling distance from Delhi, 142 miles; from Calcutta by Moorshedabad, 910; by Birbhoom, 805; and from Lucknow, 156 miles.—(*Fullarton, Glyn, Ker, Ross, Hardwick, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

Bariat *(or Birat)*.—A fortified peak in northern Hindostan, between the rivers Jumna and Tonse, 6,508 feet above Saharunpoor, which is visible from it; lat. 30° 35′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E. Invalids from the plains, requiring a cold climate, would find it here; for the redoubt during the winter is almost buried in snow, which remains in shady places until April.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Barnagore *(Varanagara)*. — A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river, about three miles above Calcutta. It was originally a Portuguese settlement, but afterwards came into the possession of the Dutch, and by the earlier British authorities is described as being the Paphos of Calcutta.

Baroad.—A small walled town in the province of Delhi, situated within the Begum Sumroo's territories.

Baroda.—The capital of a Maharatta chieftain, known by the family name of Guicowar (Gaikevad), who divides with the British government the largest and finest portion of Gujerat, his portion (in 1818, about 12,000 square miles), lying mostly in the northern quarter; lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 73° 23′ E.

This place is mentioned by Abul Fazel, and in Aurungzebe's reign was

a large and wealthy town; nor does it appear to have since undergone the great vicissitudes to which all the ancient capitals of India have been subjected. In 1780 (for we have no more recent description) the fortifications consisted of slight walls, with towers at irregular distances, and several double gates. The town is intersected by two spacious streets, dividing it into four equal parts, and crossing at the market-place. The ruins of some handsome Mogul buildings are still to be seen, but the Maharatta structures are mean and contemptible. Near the city there is a stone bridge over the river Viswamitra, which is remarkable as being the only one in Gujerat, where the streams are usually crossed in ferry-boats, or on a light platform, floated by empty earthen pots. In the environs are several magnificent wells, with steps down to the bottom. In 1818 the total population of the city was estimated at 100,000 persons.

The Baroda district, though still labouring under all the defects of a native system, and notoriously oppressed for the last ten years, is rich, well cultivated, and in many places enclosed and adorned with hedges of mangoe and tamarind trees; in fact, the appearance of the country villages and inhabitants surpasses any of the British pergunnahs in its neighbourhood. Perhaps this may be attributed to some prior and permanent good government; but when the history of the Guicowar family is recollected, it would be difficult to say at what period that state of good government could have existed. Tranquillity and the vicinity of a capital may have assisted; but be the cause what it may, the Baroda division in 1821 was decidedly one of the most flourishing tracts in Hindostan. It is remarkable, that the Guicowar territories south of Broach, although similarly farmed and managed, were at that same date oppressed and impoverished.

The wilder tracts of the Guicowar's territories (as well as those with which they are intermixed) are mostly occupied by Bheels; the other and more sedentary inhabitants are Mahomedans, Hindoo Banyans, and Rajpoots of a spurious description, chiefly occupied in the cultivation of the soil (there are not many Mahomedans, except about Baroda), and lastly, Coolies, who form more than half of the whole, and by some conjectured to be the aborigines of Gujerat. This claim, however, may be disputed by the Bheels, if they be not the same people in different stages of civilization. They themselves pretend to be descended from the Rajpoots; but this pretension is constantly asserted by the wild and martial tribes all over India. The Coolies here are acknowledged by the Hindoos as their kindred, while the Bheels have rejected, and they occasionally intermarry with the Rajpoots.

At present the chief ostensible employment of the Coolies is agriculture, and when well-treated and kept under, they are punctual in their payments, and not bad tenants. They live, however, under their own thakoors and chiefs, whose authority alone they willingly acknowledge; and pay little respect to the laws, unless they happen to coincide with their interests. Until quite recently, they have been one of the most turbulent and predatory tribes in India, and with the Bheels were for a long time the incessant disturbers of Gujerat. The courts of justice and dwelling-houses of the European functionaries are still placed within the walls of towns, to escape the desperate attacks to which they were liable; and the magistrates have constantly large bodies of armed men in their employ, and even the regular infantry and European cavalry are frequently called out to repress these Coolies, who are hardy men, and in their plundering excursions frequently display a most desperate courage. Their usual dress is a petticoat round the waist, like that of the Bheels, and a cotton cloth wrapped round their head and shoulders, to which, in cold weather, they add a quilted kirtle or lebada, over

which they wear a shirt of mail, with vaunt bearers and gauntlets; and never consider themselves properly accoutred without a sword, buckler, and bow and arrows, to which horsemen add a long spear and a battle-axe. The cotton lebada is generally stained and iron-moulded by the shirt of mail; and such tokens of their martial occupations being reckoned honourable, the young warriors used to counterfeit them with charcoal and oil; in other respects, they are fond of finery. In their marauding expeditions they are very secret, collecting at night under some popular chief, by the circulation of a token passed from one to the other; and when any of the party are slain, the parents are only informed of it by finding some sprigs of the peepul tree scattered in a particular manner before the doors. In fact, even now (1824) their turbulence continues such, that scarcely a year elapses without some sieges of Cooly forts and fastnesses.

The rise of the Guicowar's power was almost contemporaneous with that of the Peshwa in the Deccan. Pillajee Guicowar was patel, or managing proprietor of a village, who, after many struggles and intrigues, established his own power by the same artifices that had been practised by his superior, the Peshwa, towards the pageant Raja of Satarah. His son Damajee Guicowar succeeded in A.D. 1747, and reigned until 1768; Futteh Singh Guicowar, until 1789; Manajee Guicowar, until 1792; Govind Row, until 1800; Anund Row Guicowar, until 1819, when he was succeeded by his brother, Syjee Row Guicowar, who had previously acted as regent.

The Guicowar dynasty was first noticed in the political transactions of the British nation about 1782; by the treaty of Bassein in 1802 the intercourse became more frequent, as the British government then undertook to arbitrate and adjust all differences between the Guicowar and Peshwa; cessions of territory to the value of eleven lacks of rupees were received and a subsidiary force of 3,000 troops furnished. Subsequent events produced a still more intimate union between the two states, the Guicowar's affairs being involved in such confusion, and the debt accumulating so rapidly, as to threaten the absorption of the whole revenue. Colonel Alexander Walker was in consequence deputed to Baroda to endeavour to extricate the Guicowar from his embarrassments, and to restore order to his finances. This he so effectually accomplished, that after providing for every branch of the family, adjusting the Peshwa's peniary claims, paying the tumultuary troops, and easing the revenue assessments, the total debt in 1816 amounted to only fifty-five lacks of rupees. This incumbrance has probably been since wholly liquidated; at least Anund Row Guicowar, when he died in 1819, was reported to have left a treasure in money and jewels exceeding one crore of rupees.

In 1815, in consequence of the existing confusion, the Bombay government endeavoured to effect an alteration in the mode of administering justice throughout the Guicowar's dominions, without introducing too great a change in the judicial system of the country. Punchaits, or arbitration by a jury of five, first occurred; but this method of settling disputes, however beautiful in theory, is evidently adapted for a more primitive state of society than exists in Gujerat, where the employment of the people are diversified, their habits industrious yet licentious, and where rights had not previously been decided by any written law, but by the innumerable intricacies of local usage. Judicial establishments with positive powers appearing necessary, both to regulate and assist the punchaits, a new court was created to take cognizance both of civil and criminal cases, an arrangement deemed eligible to withdraw the sovereign from the direct administration of criminal justice. The judges, however, soon became corrupt, partly owing to the inadequacies of their salaries; at the

same time it may be doubted whether any salary could entirely eradicate this inherent defect of the native character, while the sovereign himself openly practises the most undisguised peculation. The reigning Guicowar in 1824 was said to be a man of talents, but so desperately fond of money that he used to lend it to himself.—(*Public MS. Documents, Walker, Carnac, Elphinstone, the Marquis Wellesley, &c.*)

Baroo *(or Barye)*.—A small town in the province of Gundwana, near the hills on which Chowraghur is built, from which it is distant S.S.E. about thirteen miles; lat. 22° 45′ N., lon. 78° 50′ E. In 1820, it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to the Nagpoor Raja.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Barooly Ghaut.—A pass through the hills which bound the Berar province on the north, and through which there is an ascent to a table land. The source of the Wurda river lies two miles from hence.

Baroos.—A town on the west coast of Sumatra, the inhabitants of which have benzoin and gold, and procure camphor from the interior. The imports are the same as specified under the article Sinkel; to which may be added white beads, pulicat handkerchiefs, chintzes with large flowers and grounds, white dungaree, salt, rice, ghee, oil, a few metal watches, and gilt hilted swords. —(*Elmore, &c.*)

Barrabuttee.—A fortress in the province of Orissa, about a mile from the city of Cuttack. Lat. 20° 27′ N., lon. 86° 6′ E. This fortress is of a rectangular form, the ramparts next the river being double the height of the other sides of the quadrangle. It has no glacis, and the walls are going fast to decay, but it is surrounded by a ditch 130 feet wide and twenty deep, filled from the Mahanuddy, and inhabited by a numerous and ancient stock of alligators. Within are an old mosque, a barrack, magazines, and the house of the conductor of ordnance, who in 1820 was the only European resident. It was stormed in 1803 by a British detachment from Bengal, and captured with little loss.—(*Public Journals, Fullarton, Leckie, Upton, &c.*)

Barrackpoor.—A military cantonment in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the river Hooghly, about sixteen miles above Calcutta, where the sepoy battalions composing the presidency division have their quarters. Here are the unfinished arches of a house begun by the Marquis Wellesley, but discontinued by orders from the Court of Directors. Horse races are run here during the cold season. This place may be described as a large military village inhabited by soldiers, with bungalows for the European officers and other Europeans, who are attracted here by the salubrity of the air, the vicinity of the Governor General's residence, and the beauty and convenience of the river.

Barragurry.—A town in Northern Hindostan belonging to the Nepaulese, forty-five miles S.S.E. from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 5′ N., lon. 85° 55′ E. The situation of this place is so unhealthy that Capt. Kinloch's detachment suffered greatly by their stay here, during the attempt to penetrate into Nepaul A.D. 1769. In 1792, when General Kirkpatrick went to Catmandoo, it was the residence of the Gorkha governor of the western Teriani.—(*Kirkpatrick, &c.*)

Barramahal.—A principal subdivision of the Salem province under the Madras presidency, of which it occupies the northern extremity, consisting properly of the following twelve places, which are all within the Hindoo geographical division of Dravida, a tract bounded on the west by the ghauts. These cantons are Krishnagiri, Jacadeo, Varina Ghada, Bunjunga Ghada, Tripatura, Veniambady, Ghangana Ghada, Sudarshana Ghada, and Tutucallu. Although not so elevated, the Barramahal is on the whole a wilder and more mountainous region

than the Mysore, and was once studded with formidable hill forts. After the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, several important sections of upper Carnata were annexed, and all the poligars restored to their estates, and put on a similar footing with the zemindars of Bengal. They pay a fixed rent or tribute for their lands, but have no jurisdiction over the inhabitants. The property in the soil is mostly vested in the sovereign, except in the polyams and a few small free estates.

In the annexed districts the rice cultivation is not important, dry seeds, kitchen-gardens, and plantations of cocoa-nuts and palms, being the principal articles cultivated. The manufactures are coarse and only suited for the lower classes. When a rich man undertakes to construct a reservoir at his own expense for the irrigation of land, he is allowed to hold in free estate, and by hereditary right, one-fourth of the land so watered, but he is also bound to keep his reservoir in repair; and experience proves that tanks of this description are notoriously kept in better condition than those supported by government. The peasantry assert that they can compel the holder to perform his duty, but that the sovereign has no master; every encouragement should therefore be given to induce rich natives to invest their money in works of such utility. The Barramahal was ceded to the British government by the treaty of Seringapatam in A.D. 1792, and it was then in a most miserable state; but the good management of Colonel Alexander Read in the course of five years more than doubled the revenue, while the rents were diminished in proportion. The villages, however, are evidently inferior in neatness, cleanness, and comfort to those of the Mysore, or of upper Coimbatoor, and even to many in the Carnatic. The inhabitants have in general a miserable appearance, and beggars are unusually numerous. Never having been subdued by Mahomedans until the inroads of the Cuddapah Nabobs, it still contains a very great proportion, perhaps nineteen-twentieths, of genuine Hindoo inhabitants.—(*F. Buchanan, Sydenham, Sir Thomas Munro, 5th Report, &c.*)

Barrambad.—A village belonging to the Bhurtpore Raja in the province of Agra, near to Biana, and remarkable for the ruins of sepulchres, pavilions, bowlies, and other Mahomedan structures, all formed of the red sand-stone of the country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Barri'ah.—The capital of a small independent principality in the province of Gujerat, eighty miles E.N.E. from Cambay, lat. 22° 44′ N., lon. 74′ E. This town stands in a valley near the river Pannah, in a narrow spot just sufficient to contain the houses, which are neat and many built of brick, between the river and the hill. The extensive wilds of Barreah comprise almost the whole space from Godra to Dohud, a distance of almost forty miles, of which scarcely a single spot is cultivated, the only inhabitants being a few wandering and predatory Bheels. Although this great jungle is tolerably open in most places, so as to offer little impediment to light troops, yet it would be almost impervious to baggage and heavy guns.

This principality may be described as one of the few independent petty states now existing in Hindostan, being not only exempted from the payment of any established tribute, but claiming a chout from all the neighbouring districts, of which it is very tenacious. These chouts, with certain moderate duties on trade, compose nearly the whole of the Raja's revenues, which in 1819 amounted to about 57,000 rupees.—(*Burr, &c.*)

Barren Isle.—An island and volcano about 1,800 feet high, in the Bay of Bengal, situated in lat. 12° 15′ N., and fifteen leagues east of the northernmost Andaman. The eruptions are very violent, stones of the weight of three or four tons being sometimes discharged. When visit-

ed in 1822, the high cone continued to send forth volumes of white flame, and the sea close to it was almost boiling. The more distant parts of the island are thinly covered with withered shrubs and blasted trees.—(*Col. Colebrooke, &c.*)

Barripoor.—A town in the province of Bengal, about sixteen miles S.E. from Calcutta, formerly the residence of the salt agent for the Twenty-four pergunnahs.

Barwah.—A village in the province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund, ten miles S.S.E. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 25′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E. In 1790 the Hindoo soubahdar of this district was an uncommonly accomplished person, and had acquired a considerable knowledge of European sciences. At the advanced age of sixty he had formed the project of studying the English language, in order to comprehend the Encyclopedia Britannica, of which he had acquired a copy, Such, however, is the inconsistency of human nature, and the strength with which Hindoo prejudices adhere, that about five years afterwards, having been seized with some complaint which he considered incurable, he repaired to Benares and there drowned himself in the Ganges.—(*Hunter, &c.*)

Barwallah.—A large brick town to the north of Hansi, in the province of Delhi, given up to Saheb Sing, the Raja of Pattiallah.

Barwarrah.—A mud fort with round bastions and a ditch, in the province of Ajmeer, ten miles west of Rantampoor; lat. 26° 3′ N., lon. 75° 3′ E.

Bary (*Bari*).—A town in the Oude territories, thirty miles north from Lucknow; lat. 27° 15′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E.

Bashee Isles.—A cluster of small rocky islands lying due north of Luzon, the great Philippine between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude. These islands, situated between the Philippines and Formosa, are five in number, besides four small rocky islets.—Dampier gave the following names to the five largest, *viz.* Grafton Isle, Monmouth Isle, Groat Isle, Orange Isle, and Bashee Isle. They are inhabited by a race of strong athletic men. Grafton Isle is about thirteen leagues in circumference, and has good anchorage on the west side. It produces fine yams, sugar-cane, taro, plantains, and vegetables, besides hogs and goats in plenty. Iron is the favourite medium of exchange, but money is now also understood. The water is very fine and in great abundance close to the beach.

The Spaniards took possession of the Bashee islands in 1783 in order to procure gold, which is washed down by the torrents in considerable quantities, and is worked by the natives into a thick wire, which they wear as an ornament. They are an inoffensive race of people, whose chief delight consists in drinking a liquor named bashee, distilled from rice and sugar-cane, after which they engage in dancing with every mark of satisfaction and gratification. The Spanish governor resides on Grafton Island, with about 100 soldiers, several officers, a few priests, and some cannon.

These islands were visited by Dampier, who gives a favourable account both of the civility of the inhabitants and the abundance of hogs; they were afterwards seen by Byron and Wallis, who passed without landing.—(*Meares, King, &c.*)

Basouda (*or Gunge Basouda*).—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on a river that runs into the Betwah, twenty-five miles north from Bhilsah; lat. 23° 53′ N., lon. 78° E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah belonging to Sindia, and contained 2,000 houses.

Basouda.—A town in the province of Malwa, with a strong ghurry on the top of a hill in the vicinity, sixteen miles S.W. from Ratghur; lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 78° 23′ E. In 1820 it contained 500 houses.

BASSEELAN.—An island lying off the south-western extremity of Magindanao, and surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones. In length it may be estimated at forty miles, by six the average breadth. In the centre there is a range of mountains, but it is low towards the coast, and destitute of good harbours. Grain is the chief production, which the soil yields plentifully; cowries are also abundant. The population is scanty, and the sovereignty is claimed by the Sooloos.—(*Forrest, Dalrymple, &c.*)

BASSEIN *(Bassin).*—A seaport town in the province of Aurungabad, separated from Salsette by a narrow strait, and situated about twenty-seven miles north from the fort of Bombay; lat. 19° 20′ N., lon. 72° 56′ E. The surrounding country here presents an improved state of cultivation, notwithstanding it has been so many years under a Maharatta government, and long exhibited a striking contrast to the desolation that prevailed in the British island of Salsette. Many of the cultivators are Roman Catholic Christians. The teak forests that supply the marine yard at Bombay lie along the western side of the ghaut mountains, to the north and north-east of Bassein, the numerous mountain streams afford ing the means of water-carriage.

The Portuguese obtained possession of Bassein by treaty with the Sultan of Cambay, so early as 1531, and with them it continued until captured by the Maharattas in 1750, having been more than two centuries in their undisturbed possession. It was taken from the last-mentioned race by General Goddard's army, but restored at the peace of Salbye; and here, on the 31st Dec. 1802, was signed the celebrated treaty between the Peshwa and the British government, which annihilated the Maharattas as a federal empire. In 1824 this was a considerable place, and surrounded by a regular fortification of ramparts and bastions, but without a glacis, which from the marshy state of the surrounding country is not much wanted. There was then a small garrison stationed in one of the gates, under an English conductor of ordnance, and the place was kept locked up, but within at the above date it was completely uninhabited, containing nothing but a pagoda in good repair, and a melancholy display of ruined houses and churches. Of the latter there were no fewer than seven, some of considerable size, but all of mean architecture, although they are striking from the lofty proportions usual in Roman Catholic places of worship, and from the singularity of Christian and European ruins in India.—(*Malcolm, Rennell, Bruce, Malet, &c.*)

BASSEEN *(or Palhein).*—A town and district in the dominions of Ava, province of Pegu, the first situated about 102 miles west from Rangoon; lat. 16° 50′ N., lon. 94° 45′ E. This port has a greater depth of water than Rangoon, but is less centrally situated for trade, for the streams that connect the Basseen river with the Irawady are navigable only part of the year, so that for the remainder it is precluded from free intercourse with the northern quarters of the Burmese empire.

BASSUM *(or Wausim.)*—A district in the Hyderabad territories, division of Nandere, situated between the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. It has an uneven hilly surface, intersected by small streams that flow into the Godavery. Respecting this part of the Deccan very little is known, although it is particularized by Abul Fazel in the institutes of Acber. At Houndah Nagnath, a village south of Bassum town, is an ancient temple covered with statues and sculpture, evidently belonging either to the Buddhists or Jains. Among the statues are three large simple-looking figures, in a contemplative position, with curled wigs.—(*Erskine, &c.*)

BATANG.—An island in the eastern seas lying off the south-eastern

extremity of the Malay peninsula, and surrounded by numberless small rocky islets. It is separated from the island of Bintang by a narrow strait, and may be estimated at twenty-five miles in length, by ten the average breadth.

BATANG *(or Patany Hook.)*—A port in the Gilolo passage, situated on the east coast of the island of Gilolo; lat. 0° 9′ S., lon. 128° 48′ E. On this hook or point is a very strong capacious natural fortress, only accessible by ladders, up the face of a perpendicular rock. The top is level ground three miles in circumference, containing houses and gardens. In 1770 the natives here supplied the French with clove-plants, which do not thrive further east than Gebby isle, on which account the Dutch formerly maintained cruizers here to prevent the smuggling of spices.—(*Forrest &c.*)

BATALIN.—An island in the eastern seas situated off the coast of Celebes, about the 124th degree of east longitude, and between the first and second degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at twenty-five miles, by seven the average breadth; but it does not appear to have been ever explored.

BATAVIA.—A large city in the island of Java, the capital of the Dutch possessions in the Eastern Archipelago; lat. 6° 8′ S., lon. 106° 54′ E. The ground plan of the town is in the shape of a parallelogram; the length of which from north to south is 4,200 feet, and the breadth 3,000 feet. The streets are laid out in straight lines, and cross each other at right angles. This city, however, is greatly changed since the British conquest in 1811, prior to which all the fortifications had been destroyed by General Daendels, who demolished the ramparts in order to admit a free circulation of air. Of the splendour and magnificence which formerly procured for this city the appellation of Queen of the East, little is now to be seen, whole streets of houses having been pulled down, canals filled up, forts destroyed, and palaces levelled. The stadthouse, where the supreme courts of justice and police assemble, still remains; but all the wealthy inhabitants after having transacted the business of the day, retire to the more elevated stations of the interior; and although the richest productions of Java continue to be deposited in the warehouses of Batavia, few Europeans venture to sleep within the limits of its pestilential atmosphere.

The great church, built in 1760, has been also pulled down, in consequence of the foundation having given way, so that the new Lutheran is the only one frequented by the Protestant part of the community, the native Christians resorting mostly to the Portuguese church. According to a census taken by the British government in 1815, the district of Batavia, including Buitzenzorg, contained a population of 408,327 persons, of which number 55,027 were Chinese. A poll-tax however being levied on the Chinese, and other duties rendering it the interest of all parties to withhold accurate returns, it is probable the real amount exceeds the above estimate.

Population of Batavia and its suburbs within two miles distance, A.D. 1815.

Europeans	543
Descendants of ditto born in the colony	1,485
Arabs	318
Moormen	319
Malays	3,155
Javanese	3,331
Buggesses	1,863
Macassars	2,029
Balinese	7,720
Sumbhawese	232
Madhurese	223
Amboynese and Bandese	82
Timorese and Bootonese	24
Pernakans (a half-caste Chinese	605
Chinese	11,249
Slaves	14,239
Total	47,217

According to an official valuation in 1813, the value of property in houses and lands belonging to individuals in this town and its environs exceeded eleven millions of silver rix-dollars, on which amount the taxes were levied.

The whole city of Batavia has long been proverbially unhealthy, not so much from the heat of the climate, as from its injudicious situation and misplaced embellishments. It was not only surrounded with water nearly stagnant, but every street had its canal and row of evergreen trees. These canals became the reservoir of all the offals and filth collected in the city, and having scarcely any current, required constant labour and attention to prevent their being choaked up altogether. On the land-side were, and still are, gardens and rice grounds, intersected in every direction by ditches and canals, and the entire shore of the bay is a mud bank, mixed with putrid substances, sea-weed, and other vegetable matter, in a state of fermentation. To these swamps, morasses, and mud banks, add the intemperate habits of the old Dutch colonists, and the insalubrity of Batavia will be adequately accounted for.

A circular range of islands protects the harbour from any heavy swell, and ensures safe anchorage; some of them, such as Anrust, Edam, Cooper's isle, are fortified, and contain warehouses, hospitals, and naval arsenals. On the inland side of the town the industrious Chinese carry on their various manufactures, such as tanning leather, burning shell lime, baking earthenware, boiling sugar, and distilling arrack. Their rice grounds, sugar-cane plantations, and well stocked gardens, surround the city, the markets of which abound in all sorts of tropical fruits, pine apples being in such profusion that they are sent to the market in carts, piled up, like turnips to Covent Garden. A great majority of the tradesmen, butchers, fishmongers, greengrocers, upholsterers, tailors, shoemakers, masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths, are Chinese, who also contract for whatever is wanted in the civil, military, or marine departments. They also farm from the Netherlands government the several imports, the export and import duties, and the taxes. Their campong or town, close to the city walls, is an active scene of bustle and business, resembling a bazar in China. It consists of about 1,500 mean houses, huddled together, containing 14,000 inhabitants and 400,000 swine. In 1740 the Dutch murdered 10,000 of them.

The commerce of Batavia is considerable, but is principally a trade of barter, bullion not being much exchanged in large payments. From Bengal the principal imports are opium, drugs, and Patna cloths of different kinds. From Sumatra, camphor, benzoin, birds'-nests, calin, and elephant's teeth. From China, porcelain, teas, silks, nankeen, alum, borax, brimstone, cinnabar, mother-o'-pearl, paper, sweetmeats, and tobacco. Three Chinese junks of about 1,000 tons from Amoy, and four from Changlin of 500 each arrive annually in Java, six at this port, and one at Samarang.

The staple articles of export from Batavia are rice, coffee, sugar, pepper, and arrack. Java is the only island of the archipelago that exports rice, the best loading ports being Indramayu, Cheribon, Tagal, Paccalongan, Japara, Gressic, and Sourabhaya. A.D. 1815 it might be exported for about 3*s.* 8*d.* sterling per cwt., but in the European market it is reckoned of inferior quality to the Carolina and the Bengal, the first selling for 18*s.*, and the second for 11*s.* 3*d.* when the Java brings only 9*s.* 9*d.*, which is more attributable to the clumsy mode of preparing the grain, than to any real inferiority. Besides the quantity distributed among the Eastern islands, in 1818 above 27,000 tons were exported to Europe, probably not above one-twentieth of the whole production. Coffee is also an important article, and may be raised with profit for four Spanish dollars per Java picul of 136 pounds avoir-

dupois. In 1818 the total production of this berry in Java was estimated at 25,840,000 pounds. Sugar is usually sold to the exporters at eight Spanish dollars the white, and six or seven the brown, per Java picul. In 1818 the total quantity produced amounted to 27,200,000 pounds, ranking in quality with that of the Brazils. Teak grows so abundantly in Java, that in 1818 it was estimated that the hull of a teak ship, well-fastened and sheathed with copper, might be constructed for £12 per ton.

The Dutch being the only nation that keeps up an intercourse with Japan, a ship is annually despatched from Batavia laden with kerseymeres, fine cloths, clock-work, spices, elephant's-teeth, sapan-wood, tin and tortoiseshell. The returns from Japan consist principally of ingots of the finest red copper, which is converted into a clumsy sort of coin for paying the native and European troops. Various other articles are smuggled in by the officers, such as sabre-blades of an excellent temper, Japan camphor, soy, china-ware, lacquered ware, and silk goods. The cargo always contains a present for the emperor of Japan, and he in return sends one to the Governor-general, consisting usually of desks, drawers, and close-stools of valuable inlaid wood, covered with the celebrated Japan varnish, and incrustated with flowers and other designs in variously coloured mother-o'-pearl.

A.D. 1619, John Pieterson Coen, the Dutch governor, took the town of Jacatra by assault, and in a great measure destroyed it. He afterwards founded another city, not exactly on the same spot, to which he gave the name of Batavia. In 1811 it surrendered at discretion to the British army under Sir Samuel Auchmuty, General Jansens having retired to the fortified camp at Cornelis, where on the 25th August of the same year he was attacked, totally routed, and the island subsequently was completely subdued. Of the strong camp at Cornelis there are now few traces, the fortifications having been all rased, the works destroyed, and their site soon covered by the exuberant vegetation of a tropical climate. During the British possession of Batavia, which lasted until the 19th August 1816, its condition was greatly improved, and even its pestilential atmosphere somewhat ameliorated by the great pains bestowed on the draining of the marshes, the cleaning of the town, and the removing of the Europeans to the elevated tracts of the interior.—(*Stavorinus, Barrow, Raffles, Crawfurd, Thorn, Staunton, &c.*)

Batchian.—One of the Molucca islands, separated from Gilolo by a narrow strait, and situated between the equator and the first degree of south latitude. It is of an irregular figure, but in length may be estimated at fifty-two miles, by twenty the average breadth. In 1775 the Sultan of Batchian claimed dominion over the islands of Ooby, Ceram, and Goram, but was himself held in vassalage by the Dutch. The inhabitants are nearly all Malay Mahomedans.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Bate Isle.—An island situated at the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula; lat. 22° 27′ N., lon. 69° 19′ E. Bate signifies an island of any kind, the proper name of this one being Shunkodwar. There is a good harbour here, well secured from the prevailing winds, but the anchorage is rocky. Although the port has been improved, it is and has always been an insignificant place: yet in 1803 it repulsed a British attack with considerable slaughter. In 1809 about 150 vessels belonged to Bate, and, until the interference of the Bombay presidency, were the piratical vessels so much dreaded by native craft along the western coast of India.

The island does not produce sufficient food for its own subsistence, large quantities of ghee, sugar, grain, &c. are consequently imported and consumed by the numerous pilgrims that resort to the holy places. In 1809 Bate contained about 2,000 houses, mostly inhabited by Brahmins; but it

also possessed Amramra, Positra, Bhurwalla, and some other fortified places, since dismantled. The whole revenue arising from the temples, port duties, and pirated property, probably never amounted to two lacks of rupees per annum. In 1807 its chiefs were fined for their piracies, and compelled to sign an engagement to abstain from robbery in future. It was taken and sacked by Sultan Mahmood Begra, of Ahmedabad and Gujerat, in A.D. 1462.

Shunkodwara is the proper denomination of this island, being derived from that of a Hindoo demon, thus named from his dwelling in a large chank, conch-shell, or buckie, within which he concealed the sacred vedas, recently stolen from Brahma. An incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Shunk Narayan, cut open the shell, and restored the vedas to their lawful owner. The demon pleaded as his excuse, that he hoped to have been put to death by Vishnu for the theft, which would have insured him future beatitude. In consequence of this exploit, Shunk Narayan (Vishnu), or the destroyer of the shell demon, established his own worship on the island, where it flourished until the flight of another Hindoo god, named Runchor, from Dwaraca, to escape the fury of a Mahomedan army, since which the latter has taken the lead and engrossed all the offerings.—(*Macmurdo, Treaties, &c.*)

Baticalo.—A town and district on the east coast of Ceylon, situated on an island three miles in circumference, sixty-six miles S.S.E. from Trincomalee; lat. 7° 43′ N., lon. 81° 45′ E. The fort here is of a square form with a few bastions, on which, in 1803, twenty-four guns were mounted. The inlet of the sea that surrounds Baticalo penetrates thirty miles into the country, and comprehends several other islets of still smaller dimensions. In many places this frith is a mile broad, but unfortunately a sand bar stretches across the entrance and precludes all but craft under eighty tons. The inhabitants are mostly Hindoos and Mahomedans, the native Christians being comparatively few in number. The interior remains covered with primeval forests and thick jungle, where wild in woods the noble savage man, here a very miserable animal, ranges unmolested under the name of bedah or vedah. Beyond the first chain of hills are the still more rugged mountains of Ouva, renowned for ages as the last asylum of the Candian monarchs; and it was amidst them that, in 1631, the Portuguese army and their general Constantine de Saa, in attempting to track the king to his den, were overpowered, and perished to a man.—(*Cordiner, Bertolacci, Major Johnston, Percival, &c.*)

Batindah.—A large town in the province of Ajmeer, about seventy-five miles S.W. from the British cantonments at Luddeeanna, lat. 30°.12′ N., lon. 74° 48′ E. Formerly the surrounding country was known by the name of the Lacky jungle, much celebrated for the goodness of its pasture, and the excellent breed of horses, said to have been improved by the Persian and Tartar horses, introduced during the invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul. Forty years ago this jungle was described as forming a circle forty miles in diameter, and the then Raja of the Lacky jungle paid a tribute to the Seik chief of Pattiallah. The soil being sandy, a great depth must be perforated before water is reached.—(*George Thomas, &c.*)

Battalah *(or Vatala)*.—A large town in the province of Lahore, situated in an open plain twenty-six miles N.E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 48′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. It is surrounded by groves of mangoe-trees and tanks of water, and is considered the healthiest place in the Punjab. The hills lie about seventy miles off, and in winter are covered with snow. —(*11th Reg. &c.*)

Battamande.—A point on the north-west coast of Borneo, lat. 5° 6′ N., lon. 116° 45′ E. To the south

of Battamande is a commodious bay at the mouth of the Pandoosan river. From Pirate's Point, which lies in 7° N., are several bays, where shipping may anchor safely, and get water from the shore.—(*Elmore, &c.*)

BATTANTA.—A small island in the Eastern seas, about the 131st degree of eastern longitude, and separated from the island of Sallawatty by Pitt's Straits. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by five the average breadth.

BATTANPALLY ISLES.—Two small isles lying off the western coast of Wageeoo, about the 130th degree of east longitude; both comprehended within a circumference of eighteen miles.

BATTECOLLAH *(Batucala)*.—A considerable town on the sea-coast of Canara, the name of which signifies the round town. Lat. 13° 56′ N., lon. 74° 37′ E. It stands on the north bank of a small river, the Scandaholay, which waters a very beautiful valley, surrounded on every side by hills, and in an excellent state of cultivation.

BATTAS *(Batak)*.—The space in the island of Sumatra known by the name of the Battas country, may be described generally as comprizing that portion of the island situated between the equator and 2° 30′ north latitude, with the exception of a few Malay settlements at the mouths of the rivers on the coasts. On the north-west it is bounded by Acheen, and on the south-east by the Malay countries of Rawa and Menancabow. It is partitioned into numerous districts, the principal of which are Toba, Mandeling, Angkola, Humbang, and Si Nambila. The district, or rather province of Toba, which is much the largest, is again subdivided into Silindung, Holbang, and Linton.

Proceeding in a north-easterly direction across the island, we meet with the Batta district of Looboo and Manambin. Following the same direction from Natal, we meet with the divisions of Palampungan and Mandeling. Going from Batang Tara, we meet with those of Angkola, Barumim, and Sama Jambu; from Tapanooly with those of Pangaran, Lambung, Silendung, Butur, Holbang, and the district of Humbang. Proceeding north-east from Baroos, we meet with the districts of Linton and Si Nambila; from Sinkel, with the district called Dairi; and from Tarumo, with the divisions of Afas, Karaw, and Ria, extending inland nearly to the northern extremity of the island. The great lake of Toba, the middle of which bears about north-east from the settlement of Tapanooly, is situated nearly in the centre of the Batta country, and the best peopled tracts are those on its borders. The total population of the Batta country has been estimated at 1,500,000 persons.

The Battas (properly Bataks) consider themselves the earliest settlers on the island, but all traditions of that event are lost, except a notion that the mother country lay to the east of their present domicile beyond the sea. The Sultan of Menancabow appears subsequently to have obtained a supremacy over them, which they acknowledge to the present day. In their persons they much resemble the Hindoos, are of middle stature, robust and well made, with rather prominent noses. Their teeth are carefully filed down to the stumps, and blackened.

Rice and sweet potatoes, with an unusually large proportion of salt, form their principal sustenance, animal food being only indulged in on particular occasions, when they are not very scrupulous as to the animal, the mode in which it lost its life, nor its state of sweetness or putridity. The well established practice of cannibalism, led both Malays and Europeans to the conclusion that the Battas were a ferocious and martial people, than which, however, nothing can be more remote from the fact, for in quietness and timidity they surpass the Hindoos, and even although they eat each other during their wars, they commit no excesses

on crops or cattle. This people are by the same authorities described as cruel, cowardly, and sordidly avaricious.

With respect to religion, the Battas believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, who after completing the creation of the world, committed its government to his three sons, but even they have become averse to the trouble, and now perform the duties of their office by vakeels and proxies. In their different gradations they are described as the gods above, the gods of the middle, and the gods below, the whole with their names savouring strongly of Hindoo derivation. Besides these they have a fabulous serpent, with horns like a cow, on which it supports the earth; but every village has also its guardian deity, whom they conciliate by propitiatory sacrifices. Besides these general interferences with the affairs of the community, each individual Batta is constantly watched over by a number of good and evil genii, called Bogus and Saitans. These are chiefly the souls of departed ancestors, who possess great power over the living, either to protect or annoy them, but much the most inclined to the latter. By this host of genii, ghosts, spirits, and divinities, the superstitious Batta is held in such perpetual dread, that danger threatens him on every side, not the less real in his opinion from being invisible. To others the path may seem clear and unobstructed, but the teeming imagination of the Batta meets a phantom at every corner he turns. Not a village but has its brigade of demons, protecting its interests and avenging its injuries, besides squadrons of ghosts and other disembodied spirits wandering about to retaliate any insult they or their ancestors may at any prior period have received.

To obviate these constantly impending evils recourse is had to the priest, who not unusually is also the Raja and village astrologer, and of course consulted on every occasion of importance. Owing to their penurious habits, the Battas do not willingly offer sacrifices, but on adequate emergencies, and while under severe fears or sufferings, when they invoke the shades of their ancestors, and make offerings to the gods. The priest by inspecting his books discovers the animal proper to be offered, whether buffalo, pig, kid or fowl, and also the nature of the crime committed. The suppliant is informed that his affliction is a visitation from one of the invisble genii for the misconduct of some of his ancestors, to obviate which he must celebrate a feast in honour of his father or grandfather, and thereby obtain his forgiveness. Of a future state of reward and punishment these people have not the slightest idea, and consequently look forward to death without terror, except that excited by the apprehension of bodily pain. Although they believe in a constant and immediate interposition of supernatural agents in human affairs, it has no influence on their morals, for it may be safely asserted that the corruptions of the heart, so inherent in savage nature, exists among them without restraint.

The language of the Battas bears so great a resemblance to the Malay, that they may be considered dialects of the same origin, but the language of conversation differs more from the Malay than that usually written. Like the Malay also, the grammatical relation of its words are eminently simple, and rarely admitting the use of either conjunctions or personal pronouns, and its intonation is deep sounding, and harmonious. The written characters are remarkably simple and distinct, easily formed, and fully capable (with the exception of a single instance) of expressing every sound that occurs in the language. They are written, like the Sanscrit, from the left to the right, horizontally (not perpendicularly) in one continued line, without separating the words. As they are undoubtedly of Sanscrit derivation, they partake of the nature of that system, each consonant containing an inherent

vowel sound in addition to its proper organic sound, by which it has uniformly the power of a distinct pure syllable. Probably about one Batta in fifty can read. Their books are chiefly astrological, religious, fables, omens, predictions, charms, &c.; they are said, however, to possess a history of the creation, and an account of their own origin; but these have not yet been seen by any European. They seldom commit their poetry to writing, but their memories are so loaded with it, that they can support alternate contests in quatrains for many hours.

Almost all crimes are punished with fines proportioned to the offence and rank of the perpetrator, but the chief who presides may always be bribed. They have no written code universally received, but in most districts one or more books of law and usages is to be found, which vary in weight of authority according to the degree of estimation bestowed on the individual by whom they were first indited.

Persons caught in the act of housebreaking or highway robbery are publicly executed with the knife or matchlock, and then eaten forthwith; no money can then save them: but if the delinquents be fortunate enough to escape immediate detection, they are only fined. A man taken in adultery is instantly devoured, and may be lawfully eaten piece-meal, without being previously killed. Men killed or taken prisoners during a great war, are also publicly eaten; but if only two villages be engaged, this is not allowed: in the last case the dead are left on the field, to be buried by their respective parties, and the prisoners may be redeemed. In May 1821 twenty persons were entirely eaten in one day, in the village in the Silindung district, where Messrs. Burton and Ward resided for a short time in May 1822, and their skulls preserved. These criminals were inhabitants of a village situated near the path leading to the coast, and in the habit of plundering travellers and traffickers. It does not appear, however, that any European has yet seen cannibalism actually practised.

Interest on small debts is sometimes so high as 100 per cent. per mensem, and a man and his whole family are sometimes sold to discharge a debt, the principal of which only two years before was a single dollar. In cases of debt incurred at games of chance, their usages are singularly barbarious and inhuman; yet these infatuated and sordid people will frequently risk their all on a single throw of the dice. Domestic slavery exists to a considerable extent, but they import no foreigners; the slaves are principally orphans, debtors, and prisoners of war. A man may have as many wives as he can purchase, but seldom has more than two, who are mere labouring slaves, the husband doing comparatively little. The dead are generally buried outside the village, and a funeral feast is a necessary accompaniment.

The Battas are on the whole a more industrious race than the Malays of the sea-coast, who are mostly supplied from the interior, both with the necessaries of life and articles for commercial interchange. Prior to A.D. 1820 the Battas could not be prevailed on to accept in payment of any other dollars than those of Carolus the Third and Fourth, which have a remarkably large and full bust, while those of Ferdinand the Seventh are small and spare. To these last they were consequently averse, while the Caroli bore a premium of two and three per cent., which subsequently increased as the Battas either hoarded them up and concealed them, or melted them to fabricate personal ornaments.

Exclusive of the general deference to the ancient sovereign of Menancabow, the Battas acknowledge the supremacy of a single chief, residing at the north-west extremity of the lake of Toba, but the dependence seems entirely founded on superstition, as he interferes in no lay affairs, which are settled by the head-men of the villages, whom he usually appoints as deputies. Indeed, the actual

existence of this personage requires confirmation. Besides this extraneous influence, every village is a distinct community, possessing within itself every civil and political power, like the ancient municipal towns of Europe. The chief, with the assistance of the leading men, frames laws, declares war, concludes peace, and administers justice. His power greatly depends on his personal character, and the degree of address with which he manages the superstitious fear of his people.

That this extraordinary nation has preserved its stationary barbarity, and the rude genuineness of its character and manners, may be attributed to various causes: such as the want of the precious metals; the vegetable riches of the soil easily obtained; their ignorance of navigation; the divided nature of their government, which are circumstances unfavourable to the propagation of new opinons and customs; and lastly, the ideas entertained of the ferocity of a people, practising anthropophagi, which may well be supposed to have damped the ardour, and restrained the zeal of religious innovators.—(*Burton and Ward, Marsden, Anderson, &c.*)

Battu *(or Pulo Batu.)*—An island lying off the western coast of Sumatra, situated immediately south of the equinoctial line, and in length about forty miles, by ten the average breadth. It is inhabited by a colony from the island of Neas, who pay a yearly tax to the Raja of Baluaro, a small fortified village in the interior, belonging to a different race, whose number is said to be limited to 100, which it is not allowed to exceed, exactly as many children being reared as are sufficient to supply the deaths. They are reported to resemble the Macassars and Buggesses, and may have been originally adventurers from Celebes. The influence of the Baluaro Raja over the Neas colonists, who out-number his subjects by twenty to one, is founded on a superstitious belief with which they are impressed, that all the water in the island will become salt if they neglect to pay the tax. He, in his turn, being in danger from the Malay traders, who resort hither from Padang, and are not equally credulous, is obliged to pay them an annual tribute of sixteen ounces of gold.

The food of the people here, as on the other south-western Sumatran isles, is mostly sago, and their exports cocoa-nuts, oil in considerable quantities, and sea-slug, or biche de mar. No rice is cultivated. Pulo Batu is visible from Natal Hill, on the main-land of Sumatra, and is entirely covered with wood.—(*Marsden, &c.*)

Battulaki.—A harbour situated at the northern extremity of the island of Magindanao; lat. 5° 42′ N., lon. 125° E. This port is known by a remarkable rock about the size of a large dwelling-house, of a pipe-clay colour, between which and the main is a reef of rocks, that boats may pass over at high water; within these is ten fathoms water. The Dutch once attempted a settlement here, but were expelled by the natives.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Batu Bara.—A petty town and state of some note on the north-eastern coast of Sumatra, situated on both sides of a river of the same name; lat. 3° 13′ N., lon. 99° 37′ E. The name Batu Bara originates from a large stone in the interior, which at night has the appearance of being red hot. The country is subordinate to Siak, from whence the local chiefs receive their chops and dignities; but being rich and commercial, their allegiance is not very submissive. In 1822 salt-fish, rattans, and silk cloths were the principal exports; about seventy chests of opium and some raw silk the chief imports; slaves and horses are brought down from the interior. The inhabitants are considerable prow-owners, and general carriers of the traffic between this part of Sumatra and Penang, &c. Some are in consequence wealthy, according to Malay ideas, and own several large vessels. They also ma-

nufacture rich silk and gold cloths, and coarse cotton cloths. In 1822 the stationary Malay population was estimated at 10,000; the Batta cultivators of the interior, most of them cannibals, were also numerous. The Batta chiefs sell their daughters to the Malay nobles for between 300 and 400 dollars, and usually present along with her ten or twelve slaves, a few horses, and some buffaloes. The blood-money for murder here is 444 dollars and 44 pice, and wounds of various degrees of severity are expiated in proportion.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

Baug.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated at the confluence of the rivers Girna and Waugney, about eighty miles S.W. from Oojein; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 74° 54′ E. The mountainous tract on which Baug stands stretches for a considerable distance along the course of the Nerbudda, but leaving in general an intermediate plain between the ridge and the river of about ten miles in breadth. There are few towns or even villages on this range, which is thinly peopled by miserable Bheel tribes, some still in the migratory stage.

The town of Baug is built on horizontal beds of sand-stone, at the foot of a range of low hills about 100 feet high, forming the western boundary of a pleasant valley, three miles long by one in breadth. In 1818 it contained only 400 houses; but prior to the desolation of the last twenty years is said to have contained 2,000. It lies on the road from Malwa to Gujerat by what is termed the Oudipoor pass, and from hence two roads diverge; one eastward through the Tanda pass, the other by the Tirella ghaut, leading to Indore and Oujein. In 1820 the town and pergunnah belonged to Sindia, but yielded him only 9,000 rupees per annum. Iron ore abounds, and is fused by the native blacksmiths, who procure above fifty per cent. even by their imperfect processes.

Four miles S.S.E. of Baug are the sculptured cave temples, four in number, but only the most northern remains in a state of preservation. The open area of one cave is eighty-four feet square, besides which there are many side rooms, and others further advanced into the hill; but without plates it would be impossible to render the subject intelligible. Mr. Erskine is of opinion that these excavations are of Buddhist origin, and present another example of temples dedicated to that religion, in countries where we have no historical record that it ever existed, and where not a single individual of the sect is now to be found. Throughout the whole there is no trace of Brahminical mythology, there being no unnatural or distorted figures with many limbs or heads, except a mutilated figure of Ganesa, which has the appearance of being a much more recent piece of sculpture than the others.—(*Dangerfield, Malcolm, Erskine, &c.*)

Bauglee.—A town in the province of Malwa, situated on the Keiree nullah, five miles north of Soondursee, and containing a stone ghurry, or native redoubt. In 1820 it belonged to Raj Rana Zalim Singh, and contained about 1,000 houses.

Baugree (*Baghhari*).—A wild and jungly pergunnah in the province of Bengal, district of Midnapoor, situated towards the north-eastern quarter. Although within sixty miles of Calcutta, up to A.D. 1816, owing to peculiar local obstacles, the authority of government had never been properly established in this tract, nor had the peaceably disposed inhabitants ever enjoyed that protection which had been so effectually extended to all the other parts of the old British provinces. In Baugree the leaders of the Choars continued to act as if they had been independent of any government, and endeavoured to maintain their independence by the most atrocious acts, and frequently by the murder of individuals in revenge for evidence

given against them. Besides thus perpetrating rapine and murder in the prosecution of their ordinary vocation, these miscreants were generally ready to become the instruments of private malice among the inhabitants, when the malignity of their hatred stimulated them to assassination, which they were too cowardly to perform with their own hands. Every attempt to establish an efficient police having failed, it became necessary to concentrate the powers usually vested in different local authorities in one functionary, under the immediate direction of the Governor-general, which was accordingly done, and Mr. Oakley deputed to execute this arduous commission.

The first measure adopted by this gentleman was to ascertain the principal ringleaders of the banditti, in order that they might be specifically excluded from the general amnesty to be offered to the great majority of the Choars; the next was to deprive them of their accustomed supplies of food; to encourage a spirit of active co-operation among the inhabitants; and generally to diminish the terror which the cruelty of these robbers had impressed on the neighbouring villagers and cultivators. The success of these measures was becoming daily more conspicuous, when it was unfortunately arrested by the insurrection of the Pykes in the adjacent pergunnah of Bhunjbhoom. The effect, however, of this commotion was only temporary, for by the middle of 1816 the gang of plunderers had been dispersed, and crimes of enormity nearly suppressed, while the current revenue due to government was realized. In February 1816 the Choar banditti consisted of nineteen leaders and about 200 accomplices. In the course of a few months, all the chiefs except two were apprehended, or fell in the attempts to apprehend them; their frequent and pertinacious resistance being partly ascribable to their long habits of ferocity, and partly to their expectation of capital punishment if taken alive.—(*Public M.S. Documents, Oakley, &c.*)

Baukasir.—A town in the province of Mooltan, near the mouth of the Lonee, which together with the whole country under Parkur in 1820 belonged to the Ameers of Sinde.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Bauleah.—A town in the province of Bengal, situated on the north side of the Puddah (Padma), or grand trunk of the Ganges, twenty-one miles N.E. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 23′ N., lon. 88° 44′ E. This is a large and populous place, and of considerable commercial importance. It is also the seat of a commercial resident on the part of the East-India Company. In 1814 a plantation of teak-trees, which had been effected here, had a thriving appearance.

Bauntwah.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-seven miles west from Junaghur; lat. 21° 29′ N., lon. 70° 17′ E.

Baupettah.—A town in the northern circars, thirteen miles W.N.W. from Nizampatnam; lat. 15° 58′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

Bayhutt.—A town belonging to Sindia in the province of Malwa, twenty miles from Chendaree.

Baypoor (*Vaypura*).—A seaport town on the Malabar coast, seven miles south from Calicut; lat. 11° 10′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. Tippoo new named this place Sultanpatnam, and intended to have made it a commercial emporium. Teak ships of 400 tons are built here, of timber procured in the neighbourhood, and from the chips and saw-dust, teak tar is extracted. Some saw-mills were erected here on speculation, with the view of supplying the dock-yards at Bombay with planks; but the moving power being wind, it appeared too precarious for the heavy machinery required.

Beacul (*Vyacula*).—A native fort on the Malabar coast, thirty-seven miles S. by W. from Mangalore, and placed, like Cananore, on a high point, projecting into the sea towards the south, and having a bay within it; lat. 12° 23′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E. The

town stands north from the fort, and in 1800 contained 100 houses. The inhabitants are chiefly Moplays and Mucuas, with a few Tiars (cultivators) and people of the Concan, who had long settled in Malabar as shopkeepers.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Beara.—A considerable town in the province of Gujerat, forty miles E. by S. from Surat Castle, where a small detachment of troops is usually stationed.

Bedaghur *(Vedaghar)*.—A town in the province of Gundwana, nine miles south-west from Gurrah; lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 80° 9′ E.

Bednore *(Beidururu)*.—A district in the north-western extremity of the Mysore Raja's territories, situated on the summit of that range of western hills which overlooks the provinces of Canara and Malabar, and is named the Western Ghauts. These mountains, elevated from 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, present to the west a surface in many places perpendicular to the horizon, and their height intercepts the clouds of the western monsoon. Nine rainy months in the year are usually calculated on in this climate, and for six of that number it is usual to make the same preparatory arrangement for provision, water excepted, as are adopted in a ship proceeding on a long voyage. This redundant moisture not only favours the peculiar products of the soil, but also covers the face of the country with timber of great dimensions, and underwood scarcely to be penetrated.

The exports from Bednore consist principally of pepper, betel-nut, sandal-wood, and cardamums; the imports salt, rice, cocoa-nuts, oil, turmeric, and cotton cloths. The roads being bad, most of the exports are carried to Mangalore by porters; the most important article is betel-nut. The difference of elevation makes this climate a month later than on the sea-coast. The cattle are small; but the number reared exceeding that required for domestic purposes, the surplus is exported. When conquered by Hyder, in 1762, the Bednore dominions comprehended the maritime province now named Canara, and to the east a tract of open country, reaching to Sunta Bednore and Hoolukera, within twenty miles of Chittledroog.—(*Wilks, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bednore.—A town in the Mysore territories, the capital of the preceding district, and situated in lat. 13° 50′ N., lon. 75° 6′ E. It was originally named Biderhully, or bamboo village, until the seat of government was transferred from Ikery, after which it was called Bideruru, or bamboo place. On this removal, the whole revenue being expended here, Bednore became a city of great magnitude and commerce, and is said to have contained 20,000 houses, besides huts, defended by a circle of woods, hills, and fortified defiles. When taken by Hyder in 1763, it was estimated at eight miles in circumference, and the plunder realized was reported (by native authorities) at twelve millions sterling. Being, like his son Tippoo, a great changer of names, he called it Hydernuggur, in which it rejoiced until 1783, when it was taken and plundered by a detachment of Bombay troops under General Matthews; but they were soon after attacked by Tippoo and his French auxiliaries, and all destroyed or made prisoners. At Tippoo's death, Bednore still contained 1,500 houses, besides huts, and it has since greatly recovered, being a convenient thoroughfare for goods. During the Ranny's government, one hundred families of Concan Christians settled here, and subsisted by distilling and vending spirituous liquors; but Tippoo carried them all off to Seringapatam. Travelling distance from Seringapatam, 187 miles; from Madras, 445; and from Poona, 382 miles.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilks, Rennell, &c.*)

Beeans.—A small and extremely mountainous district in Northern Hindostan, situated about lat. 30° 15′ N., lon. 80° 50′ E., and bordering on the Nepaulese territories, east of

the Cali River, by which it is traversed.

Beeawul.—A town belonging to the British government in the province of Candeish, situated at the confluence of the Soornuddy and Arkye, at the N.W. angle of which is a small fort; lat. 21° 10′ N., lon. 75° 48′ E. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah containing 184 villages.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Beecholee.—A Portuguese town with a small fort, situated on a narrow creek communicating with the harbour of Goa, from which it is thirteen miles N. by E. distant. It stands within the limits of the Goa territories, and is the usual place of embarkation for travellers who have come down the Ram Ghaut from the Deccan.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Beechiaco (*Beechakor*).—A miserable village in the Nepaulese dominions, with a substantial dhurrumsala, situated on an elevated bank above the bed of the Beechiaco torrent, twenty-seven miles south from Catmandoo; lat. 27° 19′ N., lon. 84° 55′ E. This place consists of about a dozen huts, but affords no supplies to the traveller except wood and water, of which last there is a very fine spring, besides several small streams in a wide stony channel; yet there is no cultivation in the vicinity, the only inhabitants being a few Parbutties or mountain Hindoos, who collect duties and supply travellers. The name Bichakor signifies a place abounding with scorpions. During the last campaign against the Nepaulese Beechiaco was taken by Sir David Ochterlony, who established a depôt, and fortified it with a stockade.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Beechipoor.—A village in the province of Mooltan, division of Sinde, situated on the west bank of the Goonee, on the road from Hyderabad to Mandavie, in Cutch; lat. 24° 35′ N., lon. 69° 5′ E.

BEEDER.

A province of the Deccan situated principally between the seventeenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude, and at present comprehended in the dominions of the Nizam. To the north it is bounded by Aurungabad and Berar; on the south by the large province of Hyderabad; to the east it has Hyderabad and Gundwana; and on the west Aurungabad and Bejapoor. The surface of this province is uneven and hilly, but not mountainous, and it is intersected by many small streams, which having fertilized the soil, flow into the Beema, Krishna, and Godavery. The country in general is very productive, and under the old Hindoo government contained a redundant population, but it is now thinly inhabited compared with the British provinces. Although long the seat of a Mahomedan sovereignty, and still subject to princes of that persuasion, the Hindoos exceed the rival sect in the proportion of three to one. The junction of three languages, the Telinga, the Maharatta, and the Canarese, takes place in this province some where near the capital. The largest rivers are the Godavery and Manjera; the chief towns, Beeder, Calberga, Nandere, and Calliany. The principal modern subdivisions are

1. Calberga.
2. Naldroog.
3. Akulcotta.
4. Calliany.
5. Beeder.
6. Nandere.
7. Patree.

After the Mahomedan conquest the province was the seat of the Bhamenee dynasty of Deccany sovereigns, the first of whom was Allah ud Deen, Houssun Kangoh Bhamenee, A.D. 1347, whose capital was Calberga. Besides the princes of the Nizam Shahy, Adil Shahy, and Cuttub Shahy families, founded on the ruins of the Bhamenee dynasty, there were two others composed of sections of their once extensive dominions. One was founded by Ameer Bereed (about 1518), the prime minister or rather the confiner of the two last Bhamenee sultans, and called after him the Bereed Shahy. His dominions were small, consisting of Beeder, the capi-

tal, and a few districts round the city. The royal dignity did not remain long in his family, his territories being wrested from his grandson by the other princes of the Deccan, and the short-lived kingdom of Beeder destroyed. Along with the other Deccany provinces, it was subjugated by the Moguls towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century, during the reign of Aurengzebe, from whose successors it was abstracted in 1717, by Nizam ul Mulk, and has ever since been occupied by his successors the Nizams of Hyderabad. But the Peshwa had always large claims for choute on this territory, which, when regularly paid, yielded seventeen lacks of rupees; but when by the fortune of war the Maharatta claims devolved to the British government, the arrears had so accumulated, that in 1820 they amounted to two and a half crores of rupees.—(*Ferishta, Scott, Mackenzie, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Beeder *(Bider)*.—The capital of the preceding province, situated in lat. 17° 49′ N., lon. 77° 46′ E., seventy-three miles N.W. from Hyderabad. According to descriptions given forty years ago, and we have none more recent, this place is fortified with a stone wall, a dry ditch, and many round towers. The wall is six miles in circumference, and the town it encloses stands in an open plain, except the east side, which is on a ground that rises about 100 yards. The whole is much decayed, but the remains of some good buildings are still visible. It was formerly noted for works of tutenague inlaid with silver, and near the ruins of old Beeder, Ahmed Shah Bhamenee founded the city of Ahmedabad, which he made his capital instead of Calberga, and this is the modern Beeder. Travelling distance from Hyderabad seventy-eight miles; from Delhi 857; from Madras 430; and from Calcutta 980 miles.—(*Upton, Scott, Rennell, &c.*)

Beejalpoor.—A town in the province of Malwa, three miles and a half south from Indore, which in 1820 contained 300 houses.

Beejapoor *(Vijayapura)*.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, division of Chowal, at present subject to the Guicowar; lat. 23° 37′ N., lon. 72° 46′ E., forty miles north from Ahmedabad. This tract had been transferred to the British government prior to 1810, but up to that period not the least progress had been made in eradicating the turbulent and rapacious habits of the natives. In 1811 it was let in farm for five years at an annual rent of 171,647 rupees; and in 1817, after many endeavours, was given in exchange to the Guicowar for some more peaceable pergunnahs.—(*Rowles, Carnac, &c.*)

Beejnote.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about fifteen miles east of the city of Jesselmere.

Beema River *(Bhima terrific)*.—This river has its source in the mountains about forty miles north of Poona, which it passes at a distance of fifteen miles. From hence, with many windings, it flows in a south-easterly direction, receiving the accession of various hill streams, until after a course of about 400 miles it joins the Krishna near Firozeghur. The horses most esteemed by the Maharattas are bred on the banks of the Beema. They are of a middle size and strong, are rather a handsome breed, generally dark bay with black legs, and are named from the country that breeds them, Beemarteddy horses.—(*Rennell, 5th Register, &c.*)

Beenishehr.—See Malebum.

Beerat.—A town in the province of Agra, sixty miles N.N.E. from Jeypoor; lat. 27° 42′ N., lon. 75° 59′ E.

Beeranah.—An open village in the province of Ajmeer, situated to the south of the Cuggur, sixty miles N.W. of Hansi, encompassed by a ruinous mud wall without a ditch. In 1810 it contained about 3,000 inhabitants, and had sixteen wells in the vicinity.—(*E. Gardner, &c.*)

Beergur.—An open village in the

province of Ajmeer, thirty-five miles from Hissar and three from Futtehabad, situated on the south side of the Cuggur river.

BEGUMABAD.—A village in the province of Delhi, district of Meerut, about twenty-three miles E.N.E. from Delhi. To the west of this place there is an old but spacious serai.

BEGUM SOMROO.—*See* SEERDHUNA.

BEHAR KATRA.—A fortified town in the province of Malwa, situated within a narrow defile of hills on the left bank of the Parbutty river. In 1820 it contained about 1,100 inhabitants.

BEHDUROO.—A small district in the Kohistan of Lahore, situated to the north of Chamba, but respecting which nothing further is known.

BEHONE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles N.W. from Punnah. Lat. 25° 1′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E.

BEHREE.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Agra, nineteen miles S.E. from Kalpee. Lat. 25° 54′ N., lon. 79° 54′ E.

BEHUT.—A town and small pergunnah in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles N.W. from Jeitpoor. Lat. 25° 26′ N., lon. 79° 18′ E.

BEHUT.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Saharunpoor, about fifteen miles N.W. from the town of Saharunpoor.

BEILKEIRA.—A village situated on an eminence in the province and district of Candeish, about fifty miles S.S.W. from Boorhanpoor, and remarkable for a well-built stone fort, a rare object in this district, where the village forts are usually of the most wretched description.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BEIROUHNGHUR.—An extensive but unfinished fortress in the province of Malwa, situated on the left bank of the Sipra, a short distance below Oojein. Its outer wall comprehends a smaller fort, also incomplete, which encloses an area with apartments ranged in galleries like a serai, and a pagoda of ancient appearance dedicated to Bhairava, one of the forms of Siva much venerated by the Maharattas.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BEJAGHUR (*Vijayaghara*).—A large hill-fort in the province of Candeish, situated among the Satpoora range of mountains, and formerly the capital of the old Hindoo province of Nemaur. Lat. 21° 36′ N., lon. 75° 30′ E. By Abul Fazel it is called the capital of Candeish. The modern district of Bejaghur took its name from this fortress, which, however, has long been neglected, Kurgoon being now considered the principal town, as the manager on the part of the Holkar family resides there. With the exception of the small division of Burwannee, the circar of Bejaghur comprizes nearly the whole of southern Nemaur. In 1796 it yielded a revenue of one lack and a half, in 1820 only 50,000 rupees, per annum. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BEJAPOOR.

A large province of the Deccan, extending from the 15th to the 18th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the province of Aurungabâd; on the south by the Toombuddra, Wurda, and district of Canara; to the east it has Aurungabad and Hydrabad along the course of the Beema river, and to the west the Indian ocean. In length it may be estimated at 320 miles, by 200 the average breadth.

The western districts of this province are very mountainous, especially in the vicinity of the ghauts, where hill fortresses of great natural strength abound. The site selected for these strongholds are nearly all of the same character, namely, isolated eminences, with flat summits, and sides perpendicular for fifty or a hundred feet from their upper margin, or easily made so by scarping. Being thus rendered inaccessible from be-

low, except by one narrow and difficult path, all necessity for outworks is superseded, and the fortress usually presents only a wall cresting the edge of the precipice, instead of the numerous and intricate lines of defence which connect rock with rock from the base to the summit of the fortified droogs in the south of India. Although less alpine, all that extent of surface to the east of the ghauts is also greatly elevated above the level of the sea. In such tracts as are flat and arable the black soil prevails, particularly along the courses of the principal rivers, such as the Krishna, Toombuddra, Beema, and Gutpurba.

There is nothing remarkable in the agriculture or productions of Bejapoor, and the local peculiarities will be discussed under the principal heads respectively. The horses reared on the banks of the Beema were held in great estimation by the Maharattas, and mounted their best cavalry. Until recently the whole seacoast was possessed by that race, which being little addicted to maritime commerce, whatever traffic did subsist was mostly carried on by means of land carriage; but the amount of this species of interchange all over the Deccan has always been considerable. As this section of Hindostan did not come under the sway of the Mogul emperors until long after the death of Abul Fazel, and remained but a short time in subjection, we have no ancient description of its condition; at present the principal modern geographical and territorial subdivisions are the following, beginning at the south-west.

1. The Concan.
2. Colapoor.
3. Mortizabad.
4. Assodnagur.
5. Bejapoor district.
6. Sackur.
7. Raichoor.
8. Mudgul.
9. Gujunderghur.
10. Annagoondy.
11. Bancapoor.
12. Gunduck.
13. Noorgool.
14. Azimnagur.
15. Ryebaugh.
16. Darwar.

In this province, approaching the Krishna from the southward, the Maharatta tongue becomes more and more in use; leaving this river to the south, the Canara dialect declines in a similar proportion: so that the Krishna may be deemed the dividing boundary of the two languages, but the Canara is rather more spoken to the northward than the Maharatta to the south of that river. The Krishna is remarkable also for separating different styles of building. To the south the houses of the lower classes are flat-roofed, and covered with mud and clay; northward the roofs are pitched and thatched. At present the principal towns are Bejapoor, Satara, Goa, Bijanagur, or Annagoondy, Warree, Colapoor, Darwar, Shahnoor, Hoobly, and Meritch.

South of Poona the Bheels are succeeded by the Ramooses, a more civilized and thoroughly subdued tribe, who principally inhabit the detached branches of the western ghaut mountains stretching to the eastward. They have the same thievesh habits as the Bheels, but no peculiar language, and being more intermingled, approach the lower castes of Maharattas. They are a numerous community spread over the Bejapoor province, thieves by trade, yet often employed as police servants and village watchmen. They are without caste, but abstain from eating beef, and dislike husbandry and mechanic labour, but are much addicted to hunting and other idle recreations. Like the Bheels, Coolies, and other depredators, the Ramooses are quiet under a vigorous government, but the reverse when the state reins are in the least relaxed, as they then unite in bands and subsist by plunder. Their principal strongholds are in the hills joining the ghauts to the south-west of Satara, but they do not reach further south than Colapoor, or further east than the parallel of the latitude of Bejapoor city.

After the dissolution of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, Aboul-Muzuffir Adil Shahy founded the Adil Shahy sovereignty of Bejapoor, which, in A.D. 1489, comprehended within the circle of its government all the country from the river Beema to Bejapoor. In 1502 he introduced the ceremonies of the Shiah sect of Mahomedans, which did not, prior to that era, exist in the Deccan. He died A.D. 1510. His successors were:

Ismael Adil Shah; died 1534.

Mooloo Adil Shah; died in 1557. During his last illness, this prince put to death several physicians who had failed in effecting his cure, beheading some, and treading others to death with elephants, so that all the surviving medical practitioners, being alarmed, fled his dominions.

Ali Adil Shah, assassinated 1579. In the year 1564, the four Mahomedan sultans of the Deccan formed a confederacy against Ram Raja, the Hindoo sovereign of Bijanagur; and having totally defeated and slain him in battle, took and plundered his capital. With that raja ended the long-established and powerful Hindoo dynasty of Bijanagur.

Ibrahim Adil Shah the second; died in 1626. During his reign the Mogul power began to be severely felt in the Deccan.

Mahomed Adil Shah; died A.D. 1660. In this reign Sevajee the Maharatta revolted, which with the Mogul conquests reduced the Bejapoor principality to the last extremity.

Ali Adil Shah the second. This prince died in 1672, after a turbulent reign, during the course of which he enjoyed little more of royalty than the name, his country having been usurped by Sevajee and other vassals.

Secunder Adil Shah succeeded, but never acquired any real power, being merely an instrument in the hands of his nobility. With him ended the Adil Shahy dynasty, in 1689, when the city of Bejapoor was besieged and taken by Aurengzebe, and Secunder Adil Shah made prisoner. This Mahomedan dynasty of Bejapoor was remarkable for the practice of conferring Hindoo titles, they being in general exclusively Arabic.

The decay and destruction of the Bejapoor Deccany empire, and the rise of that of the Maharattas, happened so nearly at the same time, that this province cannot with strictness be said ever to have been subject to the throne of Delhi, although regularly enumerated in the list of soubahs. During the reign of Aurengzebe its possession was disputed with much slaughter; but his successors early abandoned it to the Maharattas, and with them, until very recent events, the larger portion of it remained.

After the conclusion of the war with Dowlut Row Sindia in 1804, the Maharatta territories in this province exhibited a scene of the most extraordinary anarchy, and although nominally subject to the Peshwar, his authority scarcely extended beyond the city of Poona, and was resisted by every petty head of a village. The different chiefs and leaders of banditti by whom the country was occupied were almost innumerable; the names and designations of the principal were Goklah (afterwards generalissimo to the ex-Peshwa and killed in battle), Appa Saheb and Bala Saheb (the sons of Purseram Bhow, and heads of the Putwurden family), Appah Dessaye, Furkia, Bapocjee Sindia, the Vinchoor Cur, Madarow Rastia, the Raja of Colapoor, Futteh Singh Bhoonsla, Chintamun Row (the nephew of Purseram Bhow), Tantia, Punt Pritty Niddy, and others of inferior note depending on these leaders. These assumed the title of jaghiredars, although they were properly only seringjamy sirdars of the Poona state. In fact, there were very few of the southern jaghiredars who had any just pretensions to the territories they occupied in 1803.

In A.D. 1818 the whole of this vast province, with the exception of the territory reserved for the Satara Raja, became subordinate to the British government, which established the district of Darwar, and new modelled the political relations of the

different petty chiefs and jaghiredars, the most noted of whom in 1821, besides the powerful Putwurden family and the Colapoor Raja, were the chiefs of Kittoor, Moodhole, Nepaunee, Nurgoond and Ramdroog, Gujunderghur, Shanoor, and Jambhotee, all coerced (most unwillingly) into peaceful habits by the strong arm of the British power.—(*The Duke of Wellington, Ferishta, Elphinstone, Malcolm, Moor, Wilks, &c.*)

BEJAPOOR *(Vijayapura, the impregnable city)*.—The ancient capital of the province of Bejapoor. In old books of European travels it is generally written Viziapoor. Lat. 16° 46′ N., lon. 75° 47′ E.

When taken by Aurengzebe in person, A.D. 1689, the fortifications from description appear to have been of immense extent, for between the wall of what is usually called the fort and the outer wall of the old city, there was said to have been room for 15,000 cavalry to encamp. Within the citadel, or inner fort, were the king's palace, the houses of the nobility, and large magazines, besides extensive gardens, and round the whole a deep ditch always filled with water. It is still asserted by the natives, with their usual proneness to exaggeration, that Bejapoor while flourishing contained 984,000 inhabited houses, and 1,600 mosques. After its surrender the reservoirs and wells in the fort decreased, and the country around became waste to a considerable distance. At present it exhibits to the view a vast expanse of ruins, which prove the original magnitude of the city when it was the capital of an independent monarchy.

The great dome of Mahomed Shah's tomb is discerned from the village of Kunnoo, fourteen miles distant, and from the numerous spires, cupolas, and minarets that strike the eye, a great population is anticipated; but on entering the gate the illusion vanishes, for, excepting the receptacles of the dead, all the other buildings are more or less in a state of ruin. The walls of the outer fort extend eight measured miles by the counterscarp of the ditch, and though decayed in many parts, there is not yet a complete breach through any part of them; indeed, in 1819 guns were still mounted on them, and centinels stationed at the gates. Of these there are seven, *viz.* the Mecca, Shahpoor, Bhaminy, Padshapoor, Allahpoor, and Futteh gates, one being shut up. There were formerly a ditch, covered way, and glacis on the eastern face, but time has scarcely left a vestige of them. The inner fort or citadel is fast crumbling into ruins, and within its enclosure, the palace, or rather its ruins, is situated.

About five miles from the great western gate is a village called Toorvee, built on the outskirts of the former city. At this spot are still to be seen the remains of a royal palace, of a mosque, and of various other erections of less note. To the east of this stands the Dirga of Chunda Saheb, a Mahomedan mosque—a mean structure, but still the resort of devotees; and in a hollow near it are the elegant mausoleum and mosque of Abdalla Khan, minister to one of the Bejapoor sovereigns. From hence to the glacis of the fort is a succession of ruins, chiefly Mahomedan tombs, forcibly reminding the traveller of the space between Delhi and the Cuttub Minar. The mausoleum and mosque of Ibrahim Adil Shah stand among the other ruins of the old city, at a short distance without the western wall of the fort. They are built on a basement 130 yards in length and fifty-two in breadth, and raised fifteen feet; inside 115 by seventy-six, covered by an immense dome raised on arches. The mausoleum is a room fifty-seven feet square, enclosed by two verandas thirteen feet broad and twenty-two feet high. The central chamber of the latter is quite plain, as is also the interior of the mosque, but in other respects these buildings excel in elaborate architectural elegance, and might be advantageously compared with the most celebrated Mogul sepulchres in upper Hindostan. The fretwork of the ceilings of the verandas,

their panels covered with passages of the Koran in bas-relief, and stone trellices pierced with a meshwork of Arabic characters, are all in the highest style of oriental sculpture. The rich overlapping cornices and small minarets, terminating in a globe or pinnacle instead of open square turrets, as in the north of India, are remarkable architectural features which seem peculiar to the ruins of Bejapoor.

The number of buildings remaining in a tolerable state of preservation within what is called the fort of Bejapoor (for it is properly a great city separated by fortifications from another still larger) is still very considerable. One entire and very regular street for nearly three miles, about fifty feet wide, paved throughout, and presenting many stone buildings, both private dwellings and mosques. There is also another street of this description, which runs parallel to the north, but somewhat more obstructed with rubbish. The most remarkable edifices within the fort are the tombs of Abdul Reza and Shah Newauz, the jumma musjeed or great mosque, the celebrated mausoleum of Sultan Mahmood Shah, the bowlee of the Nao Bagh, the town called the Ooperee Boorj, besides eedgahs, mosques, and mausoleums innumerable. There is also a low Hindoo temple, supported by numerous pillars of single stones, in the earliest and rudest style of Brahminical architecture, supposed to have been the work of the Pandoos; and this is almost the only Hindoo structure extant in or about Bejapoor. The military Khajoos, said to have been built by a sweeper, is another of the curiosities, on account of the massy stone chains that hang from its angles, which must have been cut from solid blocks, as no joining in the links is perceptible.

The inhabited portion of the fort is chiefly in the vicinity of the great mosque. There are also groupes of houses scattered over its vast area, and mud hovels are seen stuck up among the massy ruins. There are also some enclosed and cultivated fields; but the space generally is a wilderness, covered with grass and shrubs and interspersed with trees. Without the western gate there is a well-frequented bazar, neatly built of stone, which is now almost the only inhabited quarter of what is called the city. Bejapoor as it now subsists may be described as two cities adjoining each other, that which is called the fort lying to the east, and the old city to the west. On the southern side of the fort there are no traces of any ancient buildings or of the city walls, the walls of the fort being the ultimate boundary of Bejapoor in that direction. Most of the large edifices (the palaces in the citadel excepted) appear to have had little or no wood used in their construction, the prevailing character of the architecture being rather massive solidity, than elaborate workmanship or elegant design. There are some enormous guns still remaining here, corresponding with the Cyclopean magnitude of the fort. Formerly there were twelve, but in 1820 only the great brass gun (cast in 1549) and the long iron one remained. For the calibre of the first an iron bullet weighing 2,646 lbs. would be required. In 1823 the Bombay government was extremely desirous of sending it to England, as a present to the King, but until the roads are improved it would be almost impossible to transport such a ponderous mass to the sea-coast.

Until 1818 this city was comprehended in that portion of the Bejapoor province belonging to the Poona Maharattas, during which the ruins were the noted haunts of thieves, who have been extirpated since the introduction of the British authority. No regular survey of this quarter having ever been executed, the position of this city is laid down in the maps full twelve miles nearer the junction of the Malpurba and Krishna than it ought to be, and two-thirds of the towns and villages placed in its vicinity have either no existence, or are misnamed or misplaced. The district of Bejapoor is inhabited by

Canarese, who retain their own language and manners, and in 1818 joined Sir Thomas Munro to expel their Maharatta rulers. By Mr. Chaplin in 1820 the Maharattas were reckoned to compose only one-eighth or one-tenth of the population, and were mostly soldiers and Brahmins.—(*Fullarton, Moor, Scott, Sykes, Elphinstone, &c.*)

Bejapoor.—A large subdivision of the Bejapoor province, bounded on the north, west, and south, by the Beema, Maun, Angurry, and Krishna rivers. The chief towns are Bejapoor (already described), Huttany, and Mangulwara.

Bejawer.—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund, twenty-four miles S. by W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 79° 32′ E. Ruttun Singh, the chief, is a dependent of the British government.

Bejighur.—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the south side of the Kohurry, and within the Maharatta territories south of the river Chumbul; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 77° 15′ E., eighty miles S.W. from the city of Agra.

Bejour.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-two miles S.S.W. from Chatterpoor; lat. 24° 38′ N., lon. 79° 27′ E.

Belah.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty-one miles S.S.W. from Kanoje; lat. 26° 49′ N., lon. 79° 33′ E.

Belapoor.—An old Maharatta fortress in the province of Aurungabad, division of Callianee, now in a decayed state, which defends the entrance of the river Pan, below Panwell.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Belaspoor (*Belaspura*).—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Moradabad, comprehended within the Rampoor jaghire; lat. 28° 55′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

Belaspoor.—A town in the northern Hindostan, the capital and residence of the Raja of Cahlore, situated on the left bank of the Sutuleje (which is here about 100 yards broad when the waters are at the lowest), 1,465 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 19′ N., lon. 76° 45′ E. By Mr. Foster, who visited it in 1783, Belaspoor is described as a well-built town, exhibiting a regularity not often met with in this quarter of Hindostan, and in 1819 it retained the same character. The streets are paved, though roughly, and the houses are built with stone and mortar. The Ranny, or princess of Cahlore (written by him Calour) there resided, and possessed an income which he estimated at twelve lacks of rupees; but a tenth part of the sum would, probably, have been nearer the truth. In 1810 Belaspoor was said to contain 3,000 houses. In 1820 Joudh Singh, a turbulent Seik chief, was fined and punished for systematic disobedience, and more particularly for aggressions committed against the Ranny of Belaspoor and her dependents. In A.D. 1822 this dependent Seik state of Belaspoor devolved to the British government, on the death of the Ranny Deo Koonwur. It was offered to Sobha Singh Kulsea, on condition that he relinquished all lands held under Runjeet Singh, on the north side of the Sutuleje, who declined accepting it on these terms. It was in consequence retained at the disposal of government, with the view of being exchanged for some debateable tracts in the Bhatty country.—(*Foster, Public MS., &c.*)

Belemcheroo.—A small fortress of a compact form in the Balaghaut ceded districts, situated on an eminence about fifty miles N.E. of Gooty, in the division of Curnoul.

Belgaum (*Balagrama*).—A small subdivision (or talook) in the Durwar district, province of Bejapoor, which consists of only three small hamlets, besides the cusba, or capital, being nearly surrounded by the Shahpoor pergunnah belonging to the Putwurden family. In Hindoo geography it

is considered within the ancient region of Canara, but very near the borders of Maharashtra, and it is decidedly in the tract of country distinguished among the natives as the "Kokun." The languages are Canarese and Maharatta. The Ochry gravel is here so hard as to approach the nature of stone, and when cut a few feet from the surface is capable of being formed into a natural brick, and it is of this substance that nearly the whole town of Belgaum is built. The contrast between the bareness of the gravelly hills during the dry months, with their verdure in the rainy season, is very great.

Nearly the whole population in the town of Belgaum, which in 1820 contained 1,309 houses inhabited by 7,652 persons; one-third Maharattas, one-sixth Mahomedans (mostly connected with religious establishments), one-eighth Jains, who have a pagoda here; one-ninth Brahmins, and one-sixteenth the Jungum or Lingayut sect; the remainder consist of various descriptions of artizans. The houses are better than in most parts of India, those of the upper classes being uniform, substantial, and roomy, and the lower classes respectable cottages.

Formerly few coins were known in the bazar, but in 1820 the British troops here were paid in no less than twenty-one sorts of different coins, affording an ample harvest to the money changer. The working days of a Hindoo weaver in this talook are estimated at 280 days per annum; eighty-five being dedicated to religious festivals, deaths, marriages, commemoration of ancestors, &c. Belgaum is said to be the oldest town, but most of the merchants and bankers reside at Shahpoor. Both exports and imports are confined to the six fair months of the year, the violence of the rains and badness of the roads putting a stop to all further locomotion. In 1820 there was an excellent road making to the Ramghaut, to be continued from thence to the sea-coast.—(*Marshall, &c.*)

BELGAUM.—A town and fortress in the British district of Darwar, province of Bejapoor, 115 miles travelling distance S.W. from the city of Bejapoor, and forty-three N.W. from Darwar; lat. 15° 52′ N., lon. 74° 42′ E. This place was captured in 1818, after the longest resistance made by any of the Peshwa's forces. It was found in complete repair, the walls massy and solid; the ditch broad and deep, surrounded by an esplanade of 600 yards, and garrisoned by 1,600 men, who only lost seventy killed and wounded during the siege, the interior being so extensive as to afford abundant room to avoid shells. It had been long famous for the salubrity of its climate, equable temperature, and the invigorating freshness of its atmosphere, which peculiarly pointed it out as a suitable cantonment for troops, the water also being excellent, and it was in consequence selected as a permanent military station.

This fort stands in a plain, and is a work of great strength and extent. The ramparts are faced with stone, flanked by massy round bastions, and protected by an admirable wet ditch cut out of the rock, with a sort of glacis and advanced work in front of the principal gateway. Two ancient temples and the ruins of some native dwellings are still perceptible among the heaps of rubbish which encumber its large interior area. The town of Belgaum (which in 1821 contained 7,652 persons) stands high, and is within the influence of the sea breeze. Westerly winds prevail for almost seven months of the year, and are succeeded for a short time by a north wind; during the rest of the year the winds are variable, but mostly from the east and south-east. —(*Fullarton, Blacker, Marshall, &c.*)

BELGAUTCHY.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Rajshahy, about forty-six miles E. of Nattore, and formerly the station of the commercial resident of Hurrial, afterwards incorporated with Commercolly.

BELGRAM *(Balagrama.)*—A town in the province of Oude, fifty-eight miles N.W. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 10′ N., lon. 80° 5′ E. This town, though now reduced, is of some antiquity, being described by Abul Fazel in 1582, as very healthy and famous for producing men with melodious voices, and it is still distinguished by a ruinous fort and moat. The decayed buildings appear to have been in the best style of Mogul architecture, but the present inhabitants, few in number, dwell in small houses either of mud or wood. This place is remarkable as having been the station first fixed upon for the British "advanced force," in this quarter, which was afterwards transferred to Cawnpoor.—(*Abul Fazel, Tennant, &c.*)

BELINDA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, sixty-six miles south from Lucknow; lat. 25° 53′ N., lon. 80° 49′ E.

BELLARY *(Valahari.)*—This revenue and judicial subdivision of the Balaghaut ceded districts occupies the western section of the province, but its limits have not yet been defined with sufficient accuracy. Besides the lands attached to the capital, it comprehends Harponelly, Adoni, Raidroog, Gooty, and Curnoul, under which heads respectively further details will be found; and for a general view of the country, the reader is referred to the article Balaghaut. The principal towns are Bellary, Bijanagur, Harponelly, Adoni, Gooty, and Curnoul; the chief rivers, the Krishna, Toombuddra, and Vadavati. Cotton is generally cultivated but not in large quantities, on account of the precarious nature, and the uncertainty as to its future sale. In 1812, the quantity raised was estimated at 2,000 maunds, but it is supposed since to have greatly decreased. In 1817, the total gross collection of the public revenue amounted to 981,221 pagodas, and in 1822, according to the returns made to government by the collectors, the total population amounted to 927,857 persons. In 1815, the Madras government granted a remission of 2,092 pagodas, on account of the injury done to the crops by the pilgrimage of his Highness the Peshwa and attendants through the district to the temple at Soondoor. This, however, was not the whole loss sustained by the inhabitants who happened to reside within the tract of these locusts, who had besides plundered them of their forage, poultry, and various other articles. In 1814, the judge of Bellary stated in his report to government that not a single application had been made to him for a punchait by any individual whatever.—(*Hodson, Chaplin, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BELLARY.—A hill fort with a fortified pettah in the Balaghaut ceded districts, and at present the head-quarters of a civil establishment and military division; lat. 15° 5′ N., lon. 76° 59′ E. The fort is a quadrangular building on the summit of an isolated mass of rock, not remarkably high, but protected by three distinct ranges of works one above the other. There is but one ascent to the top, partly formed by steps cut in the rock, and partly by scaling its irregular surface and taking advantage of its cavities. The pettah below is spacious, and contains a handsome bazar, besides barracks for the European troops, and houses for some of the officers, the principal cantonments, however, are without the walls. The general aspect of the spot is rather naked, but the officers' bungalows are neat white buildings, with tiled roofs, and gardens enclosed by little hedges of the milk plant. The cantonment bazar is ornamented with rows of trees, and is perhaps the widest, cleanest, and most regular military bazar in India. The lower fort at this place is considered by competent judges to be stronger than that at Gooty.—(*Fullarton, Sir Samuel Auchmuty, &c.*)

BELLARY *(Valahari.)*—A decayed town in the province of Allahabad, thirty miles north from Gurrah; lat. 23° 46′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E. From the extent of ruins seen round this place,

it probably at some former period was of greater importance than it has lately been; but it suffered greatly by the repeated incursions of the Pindarries. In the neighbourhood are some fine Hindoo temples. A little to the south of Bellary, the province of Gundwana commences.

Bellany Pass.—A pass in Ceylon on the road from Columbo to Candy, situated about ten miles S.W. from the last. The Bellany mountain is 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, yet the summit is shaded by noble forest trees, the scenery beautiful, and the air cool and fresh.—(*Davy, &c.*)

Bellumcondah.—A town in the Northern Circars, district of Guntoor, thirty-six miles N.W. from that place; lat. 16° 31′ N., lon. 80° 3′ E. At this place the country begins to assume a hilly appearance as it recedes from the sea. The soil is black and covered with stones of different kinds, among which grow Indian corn and cotton, but the tract generally may be considered as very unproductive. In the adjacent villages, saltpetre is manufactured.—(*Hayne, &c.*)

Bember.—A town in the province of Lahore, 105 miles north from the city of Lahore; lat. 33° 4′ N., lon. 74° E.

Bempoka Island.—One of the Nicobar Islands, which see.

Benares District *(or zemindary.)* —This large division of the Allahabad province, is situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. When ceded in 1775 by Asoph ud Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude, it was subdivided into sixty-two pergunnahs containing 12,000 square miles, of which 10,000 compose a rich cultivated flat on both sides of the Ganges. The chief modern subdivisions are the city and district of Benares, and the districts of Juanpoor and Mirzapoor. In the institutes of Acber, A.D. 1582, Abul Fazel describes the province as follows: "Circar Benares, containing eight mahals; measurement 136,663 begas; revenue 8,169,318 dams. This circar furnishes 830 cavalry, and 8,400 infantry."

The climate of Benares, which in winter is so severe as to render fires agreeable, becomes so heated for three months after March, by the setting in of the hot winds, as to destroy all verdure, and would probably be destructive to all European artificial grasses were they introduced. Turnips, radishes, and a variety of greens and garden stuffs, are raised by the natives, but mostly for the consumption of Europeans. There is not much land under rice cultivation, the chief agricultural productions being barley, wheat, and a species of the pea. A small quantity of flax is raised on the skirts of almost every field on account of the oil, its use as an article of clothing not being understood here. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain or peas; and at the distance of eight or ten feet a beautiful flowering shrub, used in dyeing, is planted. A considerable quantity of sugar is produced in this district, and manufactured by a very simple process: a stone mortar and wooden piston, turned by two bullocks, the whole not worth twelve rupees, constitute the most expensive part of the machinery, and the boiling pots are of the most common earthenware. Here, as in the West-Indies, the sugar harvest is the joyous and busy season. The jumma or land assessment to the land revenue in 1813 was 40,79,124 rupees, and the gross receipts of the whole zemindary 45,62,707 rupees. Notwithstanding the advantages that were supposed to attend a settlement in perpetuity, the land revenue of the Benares districts continued to fluctuate in its amount without improving, and at the above date was nearly half a lack below the rate originally assessed by Mr. Duncan.

From Patna to Buxar, Ghazipoor, Benares, and Mirzapoor, a rich country and much cultivation are seen, while the numerous clumps of

of mango trees give the surface the appearance of a forest, and afford an agreeable retreat to the cattle. Both sides of the Ganges, a short distance above Mirzapoor, belong to the Nabob of Oude, and exhibit a marked contrast to the Benares districts, which in the general scale of prosperity yield to few within the British dominions, and are still gradually advancing in population, cultivation, commerce, and buildings, both domestic and religious. The stone quarries at Chunar and Mirzapoor were formerly monopolized by the government, and either let in farm or managed by an agent; but in 1799, in order to encourage the excavation of the quarries, the whole were made free, subject to a moderate duty, which in 1815 yielded 37,000 rupees.

Plain and flowered muslins, adapted to common uses, are manufactured in the northern, baftaes in the western, and sanaes in the eastern parts of the province. Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes are the general manufacture. A species of bitterish salt is made in different places, but much the greater proportion of what is consumed is now imported from Bengal, and from Sambher in Ajmeer. A great quantity of excellent indigo is annually raised and exported from Benares, which also furnishes a proportion of the government opium. The principal rivers are the Ganges, the Goompty, the Caramnassa, and the Sone, the two last being boundary rivers, and the country in general is tolerably well supplied with water. The largest towns are Benares, Mirzapoor, Juanpoor, and Ghazipoor. In 1801 the total population was estimated at three millions of inhabitants (probably under-rated), in the proportion of ten Hindoos to one Mahomedan in the towns, and twenty to one in the country.

The code of Bengal regulations has, with very little alteration, been extended to Benares; but in consideration of the high respect paid by the Hindoos to their Brahmins, they have received some special indulgences in the mode of proceeding against them on criminal charges; and it has been further provided in their favour, that in all cases where by law a Brahmin would be adjudged to suffer death, the sentence shall be changed to transportation, or mitigated, at the discretion of government. At the same time some evil practices of the Brahmins were put a stop to; one of which was the holding out a threat of obtaining spiritual vengeance on their adversaries by suicide, or by the exposure of the life, or actual sacrifice of one of their own children or near relations. It was then ordered that atrocities of this nature should not be exempted from the cognizance of the magistrate (as they had hitherto been), or the usual process of the criminal law. The consequence of this interference was, that the frequency of the crime diminished so imperceptibly, that in 1801 only one instance had occurred in the populous district of Juanpoor within six months, on which occasion a Brahmin destroyed himself, and a relation buried his body at the door of the zemindar of the village, with whom he had a dispute. Voluntary suicide, however, still continued frequent, four or five persons destroying themselves in the same district each solar month. Another tribe of Hindoos, named Rajcoomars, were accustomed to destroy their female infants in consequence of the difficulty of procuring suitable matches, as is still the practice among the Jhareja chiefs of Cutch and Cattywar. From this practice Mr. Duncan, the resident, prevailed on them to desist, and his injunction has probably been effectual, as the continuance of it has ever since subjected the offender to the ordinary punishment for murder.

Mansuram, the grandfather of Cheit Singh, possessed originally but half the village of Gungapoor, by addition to which, after the usual Hindostany forms, he laid the foundation of this enormous zemindary. He died in A.D. 1740, and was succeeded by his

son Bulwunt Singh, who, in thirty years of his own management, accumulated acquisitions to the present extent of the province. Cheit Singh received the zemindary in 1770, was expelled during the government of Mr. Hastings in 1781, and died at Gualior the 29th of March 1810. The lands were transferred to a collateral branch, the representative of which in 1801 was Raja Oodit Narrain.—(*Tennant, J. Grant, Weltland, the Marquis of Hastings, &c.*)

Benares City (*Varanashi.*)—The Sanscrit name of this place is Varanashi, from Vara and Nashi, two streams; and its geographical position is in lat. 25° 30′ N., lon. 83° 1′ E. The Ganges here makes a fine sweep of about four miles in length, and on the convex side of the curve, which is also the most elevated, stands the holy city of Benares. The margin is covered with houses to the water's edge, and the opposite shore being level, the whole may be viewed at once. Ghauts or landing-places, built of large stones, are frequent, and some thirty feet high before they reach the streets. The erection of them is reckoned by the Hindoos an act of useful piety, which perpetuates their name.

The streets here are so extremely narrow, that it is difficult to penetrate them, even on horseback. The houses are built of stone, some six stories high, close to each other, some of them fantastically painted with groups of mythological figures from the Hindoo pantheon, with terraces on the summit, and very small windows to prevent glare and inspection. The opposite sides of the streets, in some parts, approach so near to each other as to be united by galleries. The number of stone and brick houses from one to six stories high exceeds 12,000, and the mud houses to above 16,000, besides garden houses. In general each story of a house is rented by a distinct family, and a great many of the large houses contain 200 persons. In 1803 (according to Mr. Dean) the permanent inhabitants, by enumeration and estimate, amounted to 582,000, and we may now with safety add 50,000 to that number, which was exclusive of the attendants on their Mogul princes and several other foreigners; during festivals, the concourse is almost beyond calculation. The Mahomedans are not supposed to be more than one in ten, and there are said to be 8,000 houses occupied by Brahmins, who receive contributions, although each has a property of his own. Besides natives from all parts of India, considerable numbers of Turks, Tartars, Persians, Armenians, and even Europeans, are found in Benares.

The mosque, with its minars, was built by Aurungzebe to mortify the Hindoos. Not only is it placed on the most elevated site, and conspicuous from being close to the river, but the foundations are laid on a sacred spot, where before stood a Hindoo temple, which was destroyed to make room for the Mussulmaun edifice. From the top of the minars there is an extensive view of the town and adjacent country, and of the numerous Hindoo temples scattered over the city and its environs. The European houses at Seroli are handsome, although they look naked for want of trees: but this bareness is requsite in India, on account of the myriads of musquitoes, and other insects winged and unwinged, which their foliage would harbour. The Raja's residence is at Ramnagur, on the opposite side of the river, about a mile from the city. The European residents are not numerous; a judge, collector, register, and assistants, the members of the courts of circuit, and medical men, compose the whole government establishment; to which may be added a few private merchants, indigo-planters, and persons attached to the government mint. Amidst such a crowd of natives, and in so sacred a town, it may be supposed that mendicants are numerous; many of the natives, however, possess large fortunes, and are actively engaged as bankers and diamond-merchants, for which gems (brought

mostly from Bundelcund) Benares has long been a noted mart. The land in and about the town being high priced and much sought after, and the natives constitutionally litigious, law-suits respecting their proprietary rights are unceasing.

At this city is still to be seen one of the observatories founded in different quarters of Hindostan by the celebrated Raja Jeysingh of Jeypoor. The greater part of the instruments are of stone, and some of them evidently intended for the purposes of judicial astrology; but the whole establishment has long been utterly neglected. Some miles to the east of Seroli there is an extraordinary monument, called the Saranath. It appears to be a solid mass of masonry, from forty to fifty feet in diameter, originally shaped like a bee-hive; but the upper part has since crumbled down. Externally it is cased with large blocks of stone, exceedingly well fitted and polished, and decorated near the base with a broad belt of ornamental carving, representing a wreath, and differing greatly from purely Hindoo sculpture. Indeed, it much more resembles the building seen by Mr. Elphinstone during his embassy to Cabul, of which he has given an engraving, and to which he ascribes a Greek origin. At Benares the Saranath is supposed to have been a Buddhist structure, from its resemblance to certain tumuli discovered in Ceylon, and in the Buddhist cave temples in the west of India.

Benares, or Casi, or Varanashi, the first being merely the Mahomedan misnomer adopted by Europeans, is held by the Hindoos to be sacred for ten miles round, and the famous lingam it contains is said to be a petrifaction of Siva himself. Another legend of equal authenticity informs us that Benares was originally built of gold, but in consequence of the sins of the people became stone; and latterly, owing to their increasing wickedness, has degenerated into thatch and clay. The Brahmins assert, that Benares is no part of the terrestial globe, for that rests on the thousand-headed serpent Ananta (Eternity), whereas Benares is fixed on the points of Siva's trident; as a proof of which fact, they assert that no earthquake is ever felt within its holy limits, and that in consequence of its peculiar situation it escaped destruction during a partial cataclysm or overwhelming of the world. Most persons stay but a short time at Benares and then return to their families: but even so transient a visit secures the pilgrim entrance into the heaven of Siva. Some visit this sanctuary repeatedly, and one devotee is mentioned who had been sixteen times from Benares to Ramisseram, in the straits of Ceylon. There are regular guides or *cicerones*, who meet the pilgrims in the different villages through which they have to pass, and conduct them collectively to Benares, and many votaries resort here to finish their days, the Brahmins admitting that even the beef-eating English who die within its sacred limits may obtain absorption into Brihm. Some learned Hindoos relax so far as to admit the possible salvation of Englishmen in two other cases; if they become firm believers in Gunga (the Ganges), or die at Juggernauth; and they even name an Englishman who went strait to heaven from Benares—but it appeared that he had also left money for the construction of a temple.

The country opposite to Benares is called Vyasa Casi from the following legend. At a certain time, the great saint Vyasa, the compiler of the Vedas, being angry with Siva, began to found a city which should eclispe Benares. The destroyer (Siva) being alarmed, sent his son Ganesa, the god of wisdom, to thwart by artifice this intention, and he, in prosecution of the design, became the saint's disciple, and asked him daily what would be the result of living and dying in the new city. The query was repeated so often that at last the holy man lost his temper, and in a fit of rage exclaimed that in the succeeding transmigration they would

be born asses, and in consequence abandoned his design. At present some ruins of temples are to be seen, but on account of the above anathema, and an unnecessary apprehension of future deterioration, few persons choose to reside on a spot thus circumstanced.

Benares has been long celebrated as the revered seat of Brahminical learning, and is still reckoned so holy that several foreign Hindoo rajas keep vakeels or delegates residing here, who perform for their employers' benefit the requisite sacrifices and oblations. In 1801, besides the public college for Hindoo literature, instituted during the residency of Jonathan Duncan, Esq., there were in the city private teachers of the Hindoo and Mahomedan law; and of the first 300 were stated to be eminent; the aggregate of their pupils amounted to 5,000. From a prevailing idea that if they were to receive any remuneration from their disciples the religious merit of teaching the vedas would be lost, they accepted of nothing from their scholars, trusting to donations from pilgrims of rank, and to regular salaries assigned them by different Hindoo princes, such as the Rajas of Jeypoor, Tanjore, and some Maharatta chiefs.

In 1811 it was found necessary to revise and new model the regulations of the Hindoo College, to adapt them to the prevailing habits and opinions of the natives, and to correct abuses, of which the following were the most remarkable. The same prejudice existed then, as in 1801, against the function of professor, considered as an office, or even a service; and the most learned pundits had invariably refused the employment, although the salary was liberal. That part of the plan that supposed the attendance of teachers and pupils in a public hall was found altogether inconsistent with the Brahminical tenets, and in reality not only never took place, but tended to prevent the professors giving instruction at their own houses. And lastly, feuds had arisen and embezzlements taken place among the native members of the college. Various measures were then adopted by Lord Minto, with the view of remedying these defects, and renovating the taste for Hindoo literature; but, under existing circumstances, this appears to be a hopeless task, and a misdirection of the native studies, which might be much more profitably applied to the English language, and European science and literature. In 1801 there were thirty persons eminent as instructors in the Mahomedan law; but they were mostly persons of independent property, who held public employments, and gave instructions gratis. Reading and writing are taught here at the same time. The boys are collected on a smooth flat of sand, and with the finger, or a small reed, form letters in the sand, which they learn to pronounce at the same time; when the space before each scholar is filled up with writing, it is effaced and prepared for a new lesson.

A considerable tract of country adjacent to Benares is subordinate to the jurisdiction of its magistrate, and in a progressive state of improvement. The cultivation has every where extended, an observation that may be applied to the whole zemindary, as except in pergunnah Chownsah, and among the hills to the south-east of Chunar, there is hardly a sufficient quantity of uncultivated land for the grazing of cattle. The most valuable articles of produce are sugar-cane, opium, tobacco, betel-leaf, and indigo.

The ancient name of Benares was Casi, or the splendid, which it still retains; but there are not any notices of it in the works of the ancient geographers, although they specify Mathura and Clisobara, which lay near the Jumna. It is probable, that at the period of the Mahomedan invasion it was subject to the Hindoo empire of Kanoje. In A.D. 1017 Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni took Benares and the town of Cassam or Cassima, now Patna, and penetrated as far as the country of Ouganam, or Unja, to the west of the Cossimbazar river.

Next year he overran these countries again, proceeding east as far as Kisraj, or Cachcha Raja, or Cooch Bahar. From that date the Hindoos remained long unmolested, as it does not appear that the Mahomedans made any permanent conquests in this quarter before the end of the twelfth century, or about A.D. 1190, from which era it followed the fortunes of the Delhi sovereigns until it devolved to the British, with the rest of the zemindary, in 1775.

This celebrated town has enjoyed the most undisturbed tranquillity since it came under the direct government of the British nation, by the expulsion of Cheit Singh, in 1781. It has, in consequence, annually expanded in size, the buildings having united the neighbourhood with the body of the town, and as it stands at present, it is probably the largest and most populous city of Hindostan. The inhabitants, generally, are better informed than the common Hindostanies, and are fully sensible of the contrast between the British dominions and those of the native powers, with respect to security of person and property, and the tale of every foreign pilgrim assists to refresh their attention. The Benares court of circuit comprehends the following districts, *viz.* 1. Mirzapoor; 2. Allahabad; 3. Bundelcund; 4. Juanpoor; 5. Goruckpoor; 6. the city of Benares.

The travelling distance from Calcutta to Benares is 460 miles; by Moorshedabad, 565; from Allahabad, 83; Buxar, 70; Bareily, 345; Calpee, 230; and Kanoje, 259.—(*Ward, Lord Valentia, Tennant, Lord Minto, Fullarton, Routledge, &c.*)

Bencoolen *(Bencaulu), or Fort Marlborough.*—The chief establishment possessed by the British East-India Company on the island of Sumatra, until it was delivered up, with all their other settlements on that island, to the Dutch, in A.D. 1825.

The town and district of Bencoolen comprehend an area of about ten square miles, with a population of rather less than 20,000 persons, half of which is concentrated in the town, and consists mostly of Europeans and their descendants, Chinese, Neeassies (from Neas Isle), Malays, and negroes. Neither cattle nor sheep are natives of the spot, the buffalo being the only indigenous animal of domestic pecora, but it has not ever been subdued to the yoke. The only species of cultivation that has thriven has been that of the nutmeg and clove. In 1825 it was expected that the first crop would yield 89,000lbs., and the second 34,000lbs., besides 22,000lbs. of mace. The best and most extensive plantations are worked by slaves, without whose aid the cultivation could not be prosecuted. The majority of these are from the island of Neas, some ooloo or country people, others Chinese, and some natives of Bally. Menghering debtors are also a species of slaves, being obliged to exist and work entirely for the benefit of their creditors.

The imports consist of cloths, rice, and salt, by the Buggesses and Bally traders, who take in return opium, English printed cottons, piece-goods, iron, steel, and dollars. From Batavia are imported salendangs, handkerchiefs, tobacco, sugar, and various smaller articles; from Bengal, opium, taffaties, coarse cloths, chintzes, and white cloths; from Coromandel, salt, and blue and white piece goods and chintzes; from Europe, iron, steel, Aurora cloth, beads, brass wire, cutlery, and printed cottons; and from the northern parts of Sumatra, gambir, salt-fish, oil, salted eggs, poultry, salted fish-roes, timber, and planks. There is little or no intercourse with Bombay; the inland trade is insignificant, and the eastern trade in 1821 had greatly declined. Such was the description of Bencoolen immediately prior to its delivery to the Dutch, on the 5th April 1825.

This settlement was acquired in A.D. 1685, and so early as 1698 had already cost the East-India Company £200,000, and continued a most useless, unprofitable colony, until it was fortunately got rid of. So unenterprizing also were the settlers, that

until A.D. 1821 the mountain of Goonong Benko, eighteen miles N.E. from Fort Marlborough, had never been ascended, nor even its exact position correctly ascertained; in that year it was ascended by a party, who estimated its height at about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. —(*Malay Miscellanies, Marsden, Bruce, &c.*)

BENDIKEE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, eleven miles S.E. from Korah; lat. 26° 2′ N., lon. 80° 30′ E.

BENEER *(or Booneer.)*—A subdivision of the Sewad province, which from its geographical position appears to have been described by Abul Fazel in 1582 under the name of Bembher, *viz.* "the length of Bembher is sixteen and the breadth twelve coss. On the east lies Puckely, on the north Kinore and Cashgur, on the south Attock Benares; and Sewad is the western extremity. There are two roads from it to Hindostan; one by the heights of Surkhaby, and the other by the Molundery hills Neither of these roads are good, but the first is the most difficult to pass."

According to the information collected by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, Beneer is a rugged country, composed of a number of little vallies, all opening into the river Burrindroo, which traverses the centre, and enters the Indus near Derbend, about twenty miles above Torbela. The banks of this river are fertile, and produce rice, but they are not above a mile in breadth. Some of the wide vallies also produce better sorts of corn, but a species of millet is the most general. Much of this last is grown on the slopes of the hills, which are formed into terraces one above another, and are cultivated with the hoe, and watered by the rains. The hills of Beneer greatly resemble those of Sewad, as they enclose many little valleys, which all open into one great valley, which extends south-east, and contains the brook of Burrindoo. These vallies are narrower and not so well watered as those of Sewad; consequently less fertile.—(*Elphinstone, Leyden, Abul Fazel, &c.*)

BENGAL.

(Bangala, or Bangga Desa.)

A large and important province of Hindostan, situated towards the eastern extremity, between the twenty-first and twenty-seventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of Nepaul, Sikkim, and Bootan; on the south by the bay of Bengal; to the east it has Assam and the Burmese territories; and on the west the province of Bahar. In length it may be estimated at 350 miles, by 300 the average breadth.

The geographical position of Bengal is singularly happy with respect to security from the attacks of foreign enemies. Along the whole northern frontier, from Assam westward, there runs a belt of lowland from ten to twenty miles in breadth, covered with the most exuberant vegetation, particularly a rank weed, named in Bengal augeah grass, which sometimes grows to the height of thirty feet, and is as thick as a man's wrist, and mixed with these are tall forest trees. Beyond this belt rise the lofty mountains of northern Hindostan, the population of which is but thinly scattered, and partially civilized. On the south of Bengal is a sea-coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, with only one port, and that of difficult access. It is only on the west that an enemy is to be apprehended, and there also the natural barrier is strong, and the adjacent countries sterile and thinly peopled. The river Ganges intersects Bengal in a south-easterly direction, and separates it into two territorial divisions, nearly equal in extent, and so protected, that in case of invasion the eastern tract would remain exempted from the ravages of war, and present an asylum to the inhabitants of the other, more especially from the ravages of cavalry.

The area of Bengal and Bahar is 149,217 square miles, and with Be-

nares not less than 162,000 square miles. The following proportions of this surface are grounded upon many surveys, after making allowance for large rivers.

	Parts
Rivers and lakes (one-eighth)...	3
Deemed irreclaimable and barren (one-sixth).....	4
Sites of towns and villages, highways, tanks, &c. (one-twenty-fourth)	1
Free lands (three-twenty-fourths)	3
Remain liable to revenue:	
In tillage (three-eighths)	9
Waste (one-sixth).....	4
	24

According to another calculation Bengal contains 97,244 square miles; if from this that portion of Tipera which is independent, the woods called the Sunderbunds, and other wastes, equal to 13,244 square miles, be dedubted, the remaining inhabited country will be equal to 84,000 square miles; but the extent of waste and surface occupied by rivers, marshes, &c. seems here greatly underrated.

Prior to the cessions made by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, the country immediately subordinate to the presidency of Calcutta, or, as it is termed in the official records, Fort William, comprehended the entire soubahs of Bengal and Bahar, with the large zemindary of Benares (in Allahabad), and Midnapoor (in Orissa), besides some tracts of country which had maintained their independence during the most flourishing periods of the Mogul empire. For many years after the British conquest, the revenue being collected, and justice administered through the medium of native agents, the original Mahomedan fiscal divisions into large zemindaries were allowed to continue unaltered; but subsequently, when it was determined to introduce an improved system of police and jurisprudence, the province was subdivided into the following seventeen districts, each of which will be found described in its place.

Backergunge,	Purnea,
Birbhoom,	Rajshahy,
Burdwan,	Rungpoor,
Chittagong,	Silhet,
Hooghly,	Tipera,
Jessore,	24 Pergunnahs,
Mymansingh,	Midnapoor,
Moorshedabad,	The Jungle Mahals.
Nuddea,	

The average area of a district may be estimated at 5,500 square miles; when they greatly exceed this, it is owing to the extent of waste and wood lands; when less, to their being attached to city courts, or being otherwise peculiarly circumstanced.

The first aspect of Bengal suggests for it the designation of a flat champaign country. The elevated tracts it contains are only an exception to the general uniformity, and the inundation which annually takes place in the regions watered by the Ganges seems the consequence of a gradual descent, and does not any further invalidate the notion of a general level. The tract of annual inundation was anciently called Beng, whence probably the name Bengal was derived; the upper parts of the province not liable to inundation were called Barendra.

Rice, which is luxuriant in the tract of inundation, thrives in all the southern districts, but ascending the Ganges, it is observed gradually to yield the first place in husbandry to wheat and barley. The mulberry acclimated in the middle districts of Bengal, shews a better defined limit when it meets the poppy, which is peculiar to the northern and western provinces. In the opinion of the Hindoos, the resort of the antelope sanctifies the country graced by his presence: a sentiment more connected with physical observation than with popular prejudice. The wide and open range in which the antelope delights, is equally denied by the forests of the mountain and the inundation of the fen.

Throughout the whole province there are not any hills of considerable elevation to be found, and but for the extreme flatness of the southern quar-

ter, would more deserve the name of inequalities than hills. These rising grounds are mostly situated in the districts of Birbhoom, Silhet, Chittagong, and near the eastern boundaries of Tipera, and cover but a small space of the whole area.

Bengal from its north-western boundary to the sea is watered by the Ganges, and is so intersected in every direction by navigable streams, which ultimately join that river, that there is no district wholly destitute of internal navigation during the rains; and even in the driest season there is scarcely any part twenty miles distant from a navigable river. In most of these tracts, lakes, streams, and water-courses communicating with the great rivers conduct boats to the peasant's door; but his most valuable produce being reaped at other seasons, and from necessity disposed of as soon as gathered, he derives less benefit from the inland water communication than the survey of its extent would lead us to suppose. Land carriage conveys great part of the produce from the place of its growth to its embarkation on the Ganges.

In a country so level as Bengal, and where the soil consists of loose materials, upon which running water has a powerful action, the rivers are not only gradually and constantly changing their places, by wearing down their banks, but very often a small obstacle placed in one of these channels forces the water into another, and as that by degrees becomes wider, the first is wholly abandoned in the dry season, and ceasing to have a current, becomes a stagnant marsh. These unceasing aberrations of the river are attended with much inconvenience to the landholders, one person's ground being carried away, and that of another enlarged, while the land assessment on both continues the same. No buildings intended for duration can be raised on so unstable a foundation, so that the wealthy have little comfort in their dwellings, and the country is destitute of ornament. With regard to those of the poor classes, a village in Bengal is removed with very little inconvenience, such a change of place being considered an ordinary casualty, frequently occasioned by an unseasonable shower. These migrations affect the inhabitants but very little, for even in common there are not many houses that last three years, partly owing to the slightness of the materials, and partly to the frequency of fires. The principal rivers of the province are the

Ganges,	Korotaya,
Brahmaputra,	Manas,
Roopnarrain,	Cosi
Dummooda,	Conki,
Teesta,	Manas, and
Kooram,	Jhinayi.

There are not any lakes in Bengal resembling those of Scotland or Canada, but there is a profusion of extensive jeels, which may be either denominated shallow lakes or deep morasses. A large proportion of these in the dry season contain little water, but during the rains present immense sheets, over which boats of the greatest magnitude may be navigated, and some are navigable to a certain extent throughout the whole year. There is reason to believe that nearly all these stagnant sheets of water rest in what were at a remote period the channels of large rivers, which have since altered their courses, and now flow in another direction.

The periodical winds that prevail in the Bay of Bengal, extend their influence over the flat country, until they are diverted by chains of mountains into another direction, nearly correspondent, however, with the course of the Ganges; for when a province is traversed by large rivers, it is probable that the winds are much influenced by the tendency of their course. In the south of Bengal the prevailing winds are north and south; in Bahar east and west; and the same takes place in Assam, following the direction of the Brahmaputra. In Bengal northerly and southerly winds blow alternately, during unequal portions of the year, over that quarter of the province that faces the head of the bay. The seasons of Bengal conform nearly with these changes of the

prevailing winds, and are usually distinguished by the terms cold, hot, and rainy.

In the beginning of April, and sometimes earlier, particularly in the south-eastern quarter of Bengal, there are frequent storms of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain, from the north-west, which happen more frequently towards the close of the day than at any other time. During this, much attention is required in navigating the rivers. These squalls moderate the heat, and continue until the setting in of the periodical rains, which generally commence early in June. If the rains break up in the beginning of September, the weather is intensely hot, and the inhabitants, especially the European part, become very sickly. The natives from the result of their own experience assign six seasons to the year, each containing two months. The spring and dry season occupy four months, during which the heat progressively increases, until it becomes almost intolerable, even to those born in the country. In the middle districts it is lessened by occasional thunder storms, named north-westers, and in the eastern mild showers of rain are still more frequent, and refresh the earth.

The scorched inhabitants are at length relieved by the rainy season, which in general commences nearly at the same season throughout the whole province. During the two first months the rain is heavy and continual. In this period an interval of several successive days is rare, and the rain pours with such force and perseverance, that three, four, and even five inches of water, have been known to fall in a single day. In the two following months the intermissions are more frequent, and of longer duration, and the weather more sultry. The rivers, and especially the Ganges, which begin to rise even before the commencement of the rainy season, continue to increase during the two first months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greatest height in the third. By this time the rivers of Bengal are much swollen, and the Delta of the Ganges overflowed. The average annual fall of rain in the lower parts of Bengal is seldom short of 70, and as rarely exceeds 80 inches.

About the middle of autumn the rivers begin to decrease, and as winter approaches the showers cease to fall, and the inundation gradually drains off and evaporates. Fogs, the natural consequence of such evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in most parts of Bengal Proper. Dew at this season is every where abundant and penetrating; and in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts, frost and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country it is obtained by the simple artifice of assisting evaporation in porous vessels, although the atmosphere be much warmer than the freezing temperature. Throughout the whole winter in Bengal, dews continue copious, and greatly assist vegetation, affording nearly as much moisture as corn requires in so loose a soil. The barometer here is remarkably stationary, standing within a few tenths of an inch of the same height throughout the year, and exhibiting within these narrow limits the phenomenon of diurnal tides.

As the damp of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the earth, it must originate from causes on or above the surface; to the want of a general system of drainage in so level a country; to the luxuriant vegetation, and to the closeness of the woods, which, not being adequately opened, obstruct the ventilation of the surface, and retain a redundant and unwholesome quantity of moisture, amidst rotten leaves and putrid vegetable substances. In the cold and dry seasons the heavy dews are probably not more than sufficient to supply the daily exhaustion of the sun, and probably rather contribute to salubrity than otherwise. Under these circumstances the principal experiments should be directed to draining on a general plan, and the cutting of broad, straight roads through the forests and jungles, as much as possible in the direction of the prevailing winds.

The general soil of Bengal is clay with a considerable proportion of siliceous sand, fertilized by various salts, and by decayed substances, animal and vegetable. In the flat country sand is every where the basis of this stratum of productive earth, which indicates an accession of soil on land that has been gained by the dereliction of the water. A period of thirty years scarcely covers the barren sand with soil sufficient to reward the labours of the husbandman; the lapse of half a century does not remove it half a span from the surface. In tracts that are annually inundated the progress is more rapid, because the superincumbent water deposits sand, and keeps the clay, calcareous matter, and other fertilizing substances, suspended. If the various proportions of clay and sand, and the circumstance of frequent alterations in the channels of rivers be considered, great inequalities of soil may be expected, although it be composed of few substances. In sinking a well near the banks of the Hooghly, in the vicinity of Calcutta, no springs of fresh water were reached at the depth of 140 feet, although it had always been a commonly received opinion that the soil of Bengal was particularly moist and full of springs. The first appearance of damp was at the depth of seventy-one feet, and below seventy-six feet was as dry as on the surface; and in this experiment the borer must have descended nearly to the level of the sea. Throughout the whole of these strata no traces of volcanic matter was discovered, which renders it probable that the shocks of earthquakes about Calcutta, if they have any sympathy with volcanoes, do not originate from any very proximate cause, which is also corroborated by the general feebleness of the shocks. The Monghir hills, which are said to contain volcanic matter, lie at the distance of 250 miles from Calcutta.

In the tracts subject to annual inundation, insulated habitations, and fields considerably raised above the level of the country, exhibit the effects of patient industry. In the same space during the rainy season, a scene presents itself interesting by its novelty: a navigation over fields submerged to a considerable depth, while the ears of rice float on the surface, and stupendous dykes, not altogether preventing inundation, but moderating its violence. The peasants repairing to the markets, and even to the fields, on embarkations, accompanied by their families and domestic animals, from an apprehension that the water might rise suddenly, and drown their children and cattle in the absence of their boats. When the peasant's habitation is passed, and the height of the flood observed nearly to the level of the artificial mound on which it stands, his precaution does not appear superfluous.

The assemblage of peasants in their villages, their small farms, and the want of enclosures, bar all great improvements in husbandry, especially in a country so infested with tigers and gang robbers (dacoits) or river pirates, that solitary dwellings and unattended cattle would be insecure. Another obstacle to improvement is the mixture of trades; the peasants indifferently quitting the plough to use the loom, and the loom to resume the plough.

In Bengal and Bahar only one-third of the land is estimated to be tilled, but this is exclusive of lays and fallows. In England there are four acres of arable and meadow land for every inhabitant; in Bengal little more than one acre of tilled land for each individual. The natural seasons of rice are ascertained from the progress of the wild plant, which sows itself in the first months of the winter, and vegetates with the early moisture at the approach of the rains. During the period of the rains it ripens, and drops its seed with the commencement of winter. But the common husbandry of Bengal sows the rice at the season when it would naturally vegetate, to gather a crop in the rains; it also withholds seed

until the second month of that season, and reaps the harvest the beginning of winter. The rice of this crop is esteemed the best, not being equally liable with the other to decay. The several seasons of cultivation, added to the influence of soil and climate, have influenced the different species of rice to an endless diversity.

Other corn is more limited in its varieties and seasons. Of wheat and barley few sorts are distinguished; they are all sown at the commencement of the cold season, and reaped in spring. A great variety of different kinds of pulse (such as pease, chiches, pigeon pease, kidney beans) finds its place also in the occupations of husbandry, no season being without its appropriate species, but most sorts are sown and reaped in winter. These thrive on poor soils, and require but little culture. Millet and other small grain are also of importance; several sorts, restricted to no particular season, and vegetating rapidly, are useful, because they occupy an interval after a late harvest which does not admit the usual course of husbandry. Maize is less cultivated in Bengal than in most countries where it is acclimated. It is the most usual produce of poor soils in hilly countries, and is consequently very generally cultivated in the more western districts, which are of an irregular surface.

The universal and vast consumption of vegetable oils throughout Bengal is supplied by the extensive cultivation of mustard-seed, linseed, sesamum, and palma christi, besides what is procured from the cocoa-nut. The first occupy the cold season; the sesamum ripens during the rains, or early after their close. Among the most important productions of Bengal are tobacco, indigo, cotton, the mulberry, and poppy, most of which require land solely appropriated to the cultivation of each. It is a well-known fact, that newly cleared land, for the first four or five years, yields the most productive crops of indigo. The grand object of the farmer in Bengal is to have an equable supply of water; and the rains in general are so copious, that if the water were confined on the spot where it fell, the supply would never fail, and it never would be too great, as the power of vegetation would always surpass the rise of the water. But as even in Bengal there are inequalities of surface, the lower parts are often drowned by sudden rains and the upper frequently scorched by too long intervals of fair weather. The natives have in consequence an opinion, which appears well-founded, that there cannot be too many small embankments.

The plough in this province is drawn by a single yoke of oxen guided by the ploughman, and two or three yokes of oxen, assigned to each plough, relieve each other until the task is completed. Several ploughs in succession deepen the furrows, or rather scratch the surface, for the implement used throughout India wants a contrivance for turning up the earth, and the share has neither width or depth sufficient to stir a new soil. A second ploughing crosses the first, and a third is sometimes given dingonally to the preceding. These frequently repeated, and followed by a branch of a tree, or some other substitute for a harrow, pulverize the soil and prepare it for the reception of seed. The field must be watched several days to defend it from the flocks of birds, and it is necessary still longer to prolong the defence of the field in such tracts as are much infested by wild deer, boars, buffaloes, and elephants. For this purpose a bamboo stage is erected, and a watchman stationed on it, to scare away wild animals should any approach. In all districts, maize, and some sorts of millet, when nearly arrived at maturity, generally need defence from the depredations of birds by day, and of large bats by night. The sickle (for the scythe is unknown) reaps every harvest, as with it the peasant picks out the ripest plants.

The practice of stacking corn reserved for seed is very unusual, the husk that covers rice preserving it

so effectually. At the peasant's convenience the cattle tread out the corn, or his staff threshes out the smaller seeds. The practice of storing grain in subterraneous hoards, which is frequent in Benares and the upper provinces, and also in the south of India, is not adapted to the damp climate and moist soil of Bengal, where grain is hoarded above ground in round huts, raised from the ground and in large piles, the self-generated heat of which will not allow insects to live within the heap. If rice be used too soon after it is gathered (for instance, one or two months) it has been found experimentally to be very unwholesome food.

In the management of forced rice irrigation, dams and embankments retain the water on extensive plains, or preserve it in lakes, to water lower land as occasion may require. Reservoirs, ponds, water-courses, and dykes are more generally in a progress of decay than improvement. The rotation of crops which engrosses so much the attention of enlightened cultivators in Europe, is not understood in Hindustan, and a course of husbandry extending beyond the year was never dreamed of by a Bengal farmer. Neither is he, in the succession within the year, guided by any choice of an article adapted to restore fertility to land impoverished by a former crop. The Indian cultivator allows his field a lay, but never a fallow. The cattle kept for labour and subsistence are mostly fed on small commons, or other pasturage, or at home on cut grass. The cattle for breeding and for the dairy are grazed in numerous herds in the forests or on the downs. The dung, in place of being applied to the fields, is carefully collected for fuel. The Bengal farmer restricts the use of manure to sugar-cane, mulberry, tobacco, poppy, and some other articles.

In Bengal many tanks have been dug, which are frequently used in supplying the inhabitants with water, not only for domestic purposes, but also for irrigation. But ostentation, and the love of fame, have in some parts increased the number and size of these excavations to a destructive extent, no one being interested in their repair, which is not productive of any reputation. Almost every tank, therefore, is soon choked up with aquatic plants, and becomes a source of vile smells, bad water, and distempers; and there being many more tanks than are requisite, much land is thereby lost to agriculture. In some parts of the province the evil has reached to such a pitch, that the digging of a new tank ought to be prohibited, unless the necessity for its construction be previously established, and security ought to be taken for its being kept in proper repair, and free from noxious weeds. At present the only measure taken by the natives for this purpose in large tanks, is to place a quantity of mercury at the bottom of the tank on its first formation; and although numberless examples of the inefficacy of this absurd expedient daily occur, the excavators continue perfectly credulous.

The simple tools employed by the native in every art are so coarse, and apparently so inadequate to his purpose, that it creates surprise how he can effect his undertaking; but the long continuance of feeble efforts accomplishes what, compared with the means, appears impracticable. The plough is the instrument that stands most in need of improvement. The readiness with which the Indian can turn from his usual occupation to any other branch of the same art, or to a new profession, is characteristic of his country, and the success of his earliest efforts, in any employment new to him, is daily remarked with wonder. The want of capital in manufactures and agriculture prevents the subdivision of labour, every manufacturer and artist working on his own account, conducts the whole process of his art, from the formation of his tools to the sale of his production. Every labourer and artizan, who has frequently occasion to recur to the labours of the field, becomes a husbandman.

A cultivator in Bengal who employs servants, employs one for each plough,

and pays him monthly wages, which on an average do not exceed one rupee per month, and in a very cheap district, the wages are so low as half a rupee; but the task on the medium of one-third of an acre per day is completed by noon. The cattle are then left to the herdsman's care, and the ploughman follows other occupations during the remainder of the day. Generally he cultivates some land on his own account, and this he commonly rents from his employer for a payment in kind. If the herd be sufficiently numerous to occupy one person, a servant is entertained, and receives in food, money, and clothing to the value of one rupee and a-half per mensem. The plough itself costs less than a rupee. The cattle employed in husbandry are of the smallest kind, the cost on an average not being more than five rupees each. The price of labour may be computed from the usual hire of a plough with its yoke and oxen, which may be stated on the medium to be about 4*d.* per day. The cleaning of the rice is executed with a wooden pestle and mortar, the allowance for husking it being nearly uniform, the performer contracting to deliver back five-eighths of the weight in clean rice, the surplus, with the chaff or bran, paying for the labour. Five quarters of rice per acre are reckoned a large produce, and a return of fifteen for one on the seed.

As a middle course of husbandry, two yearly harvests may be assumed from each field: one of white corn, and another of pulse, oil seed, or millet. The price of corn fluctuates much more here than in Europe, and has a considerable influence on the value of most other articles, though it cannot regulate the price of all. When the crops of corn happen to be abundant, it is not only cheap, but wants a ready market; and as the payment of the rent is regulated by the season of the harvest, the cultivator thereby sustains considerable detriment. In Bengal, where the revenue of the state has had the form of land rent, the management of the public finances has a more direct influence on agriculture than any other branch of the administration. The price of rice has rather diminished than increased since British conquest, nor has Bengal suffered a famine of any severity since A.D. 1770.

The orchard of this province is what chiefly attaches the peasant to his native soil, although the seasons in Bengal are not favourable for the production of many kinds of fruit, owing to the rains occupying great part of the summer; and the heat of the spring is not sufficient to bring them to maturity before the rainy season commences. But he feels a superstitious veneration for the trees planted by his ancestors, and derives comfort and profit from their fruit. Orchards of mangoe trees diversify the plain in every part of Bengal, and the palmyra abounds in Bahar. The cocoa-nut thrives in those parts of Bengal that are not remote from the sea, and the date tree grows every where, but especially in Bahar. Plantations of areca are common in the central parts of Bengal; the bassia thrives even in the poorest soils, and abounds in the hilly districts. Its inflated corollas are excellent and nutritious, and yield by distillation an intoxicating spirit. The oil expressed from its seeds, in mountainous tracts, is a common subtitute for butter. Clumps of bamboos abound and flourish as long as they are not too hastily thinned. This gigantic grass is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth. Its greatest height (from forty to fifty feet) is completed in a single year, and during the second, its wood acquires all the hardness and elasticity which render it so useful. They supply the peasant with materials for building and may also yield him a profit, as it is probable a single acre of thriving bamboos produces more wood than ten of any other tree.

Potatoes have been introduced into Bengal, and apparently with the most beneficial effect. The quantity procured by Europeans at almost every season of the year proves that they

are not unsuited to the climate, and the small potatoe is little if at all inferior to that of England; but the crop being less abundant, in the market this root is generally dearer than rice. The watery insipidity of tropical vegetables, is a circumstance universally remarked by Europeans on their arrival in India. Asparagus, cauliflower, and other esculent plants, are raised for European consumption, but they are comparatively tasteless.

The profits of cattle consist in the increase of stock, and the milk of buffaloes, which are grazed at a very small expense. The milk of the latter is universally preferred by the Bengalese and most other Hindostanies, to that of cows, which is comparatively little used, although to a European taste the first is insipid, and the butter made from it disagreeable. Cattle constitute a considerable portion of the peasant's wealth, and the profits of stock would be much greater did the consumption of animal food take off the barren cows, and oxen that have passed their prime. This is not sufficient to render sheep an object of general attention. Their wool supplies the home consumption of blankets, but it is too coarse, and brings too low a price to afford a large profit on this species of stock.

The native Bengally horse or tattoo, is a thin, ill-shaped, vicious, and every way contemptible animal, and is never used in a team, bullocks being better adapted for that species of labour. The Bengally cart is nearly as bad as their plough, with clumsy wheels and axletrees, which never being oiled, make a loud creaking noise; nor can the native driver be prevailed on to alter what was the custom of his forefathers. The elephants, camels, and oxen attached to the commissariat, are kept in excellent condition. The buffaloes are generally of a dirty black colour, with long semicircular horns, which instead of standing or bending forward, are laid backwards on the neck, so that when he attacks he is obliged to put his snout between his forelegs, to enable him to point his horns forward. The Bengalese sheep are naturally a thin, lank, and diminutive breed, of a dark grey colour, beside which, a European sheep seems a monster in size; but when fattened for table, the mutton equals the best of Europe, and greatly surpasses the generality.

Pariah dogs infest the streets of all the towns in Bengal, and the approach of evening is announced by the howling of jackalls, which then quit their retreats in the jungles. Apes and monkeys swarm in the woods, and sometimes plunder the fruit shops of a village. Being a sacred animal, the natives often voluntarily supply their wants, and seldom injure them. The Brahminy or sacred bull of the Hindoos, also rambles over the country without interruption. He is caressed and pampered by the people, to feed him being deemed a meritorious act of religion. The crow, kite, mayana (or grakle) hop about the dwellings of the Bengalese with a familiarity and sense of safety unknown in Europe. Gigantic herons (ardea ardgala) are seen in great numbers, and from their solemn military strut, are named adjutants by the European soldiers; toads, snakes, frogs, lizards, and other reptiles, which are their food, abound.

The abundance of fish affords a supply almost attainable by every class, and in the Ganges and its innumerable branches are many different kinds. Their plenty at some seasons is so great that they become the food of the poorest natives, who are said to contract diseases from a too liberal indulgence. The smallest kind are all equally acceptable in a curry, the standing dish of every native family throughout Hindostan; and in fact, with a pilau, comprehends their whole art of cookery. The bickty or cockup, is an excellent fish; as is also the sable fish, which is uncommonly rich, and eats best as a tamarind pickle. But the highest flavoured fish, not only in Bengal but in the whole world, is the mangoe fish, thus named from its appearing in the

rivers during the mangoe season, when it is a favourite dish (especially in roe) at every European table. It is remarkable that the mangoe fish, although a sea fish, and found exclusively within the influence of the tides, has never been observed in the Krishna, Godavery, or any of the Deccany rivers, nor in fact any where along the bay except in Bengal and the rivers of Ava. The sable fish is also found in the Cavery. Mullet abound in all rivers within a certain distance of the sea, and may be killed with small shot as they swim against the stream with their heads partly out of the water. Oysters are procured from the southern coast of Chittagong, not so large, but fully as well flavoured as those of Europe; turtle of a good quality from Cheduba and the coast of Aracan. Porpoises abound in all the large rivers within 200 miles of the sea, and alligators in almost every river, where there are also incredible quantities of small turtle, which are eaten by the inferior castes.

The staple productions of Bengal for exportation are sugar, tobacco, silk, cotton, and indigo.

Tobacco, it is probable, was unknown to India as well as to Europe before the discovery of America. It appears from a proclamation of the Emperor Jehanghire, mentioned by that prince in his own memoirs, that it was introduced by Europeans, either during his own reign (the beginning of the seventeenth century) or in that of his father Acber. The Hindoos have names for the plant in their own languages; but these names, not excepting the Sanscrit, seem to be corrupted from the European denomination of the plant, and not to be found in ancient compositions. The practice, however, of inhaling the smoke of hemp-leaves, and of other intoxicating drugs, is of long standing, so that tobacco, when once introduced, soon became general throughout India, and the plant is now one of universal cultivation throughout Hindostan.

The sugar-cane, the name of which was scarcely known to the ancient inhabitants of Europe, grew luxuriantly throughout Bengal in the remotest times. From India the plant was carried to Arabia, and from thence to Europe and Africa. From Benares to Rungpoor, and from the borders of Assam to Cuttack, there is scarcely a district in the province where the sugar-cane does not flourish. It thrives most especially in Benares, Bahar, Rungpoor, Birbhoom, Burdwan, and Midnapoor, is successfully cultivated in all, and there seems to be no other bounds to the possible production of sugar in Bengal than the limits of the demand, and consequent vent for it. The growth for home consumption and inland trade is immense, and it only needs encouragement to provide for Europe also, being cheaply produced and frugally manufactured.

Cotton is cultivated in Bengal, but the enormous quantity exported by sea is almost exclusively the produce of the northern provinces and of the Deccan, which also furnish a considerable portion of that used for internal consumption. The names of cotton in most European languages are obviously derived from the Arabic word kutn, pronounced cootn. Some sorts are indigenous to America, others are certainly natives of India, which has at all times been the country most celebrated for cotton manufactures.

Europe was anciently supplied with silk through the medium of Indian commerce. The dead language of India (the Sanscrit) has names for the silk-worm and manufactured silk, and among the numerous tribes of Hindoos derived from the intermixture of the original races, there are two classes mentioned whose appropriate occupation was the feeding of silk-worms, and the spinning of silk. A person who feeds his own silk-worms has full employment for his family. The rearing of them is principally confined to a section of Burdwan, and to the vicinity of the Bhagirathi and great Ganges, from the fork of these rivers, for about 100 miles down their streams. The sta-

tions where the East-India Company's investment of silk is mostly procured are Commercolly, Jungeypoor, Bauleah, Malda, Radanagore, Rungpoor, and Cossimbazar. There is also a considerable quantity of silk obtained from wild silk-worms, and from those reared on other plants besides the mulberry. Much silk of this kind supplies home consumption; much is imported from the countries situated on the north-west border of Bengal, and the southern frontier of Benares; much is exported, wrought and unwrought, to the western parts of India, and some enters into manufactures much esteemed in Europe. Four crops of mulberry-leaves are obtained from the same field in the course of each year—the best in December.

The manufacture of indigo appears to have been known and practised in India from the earliest period. From this country, whence it derives its name, Europe was anciently supplied with it, until the produce of America engrossed the market. The spirited exertions of a few individuals restored this commerce to Bengal, solely by the superior qualities of their manufactures; for so far as regards the culture no material change has taken place in the practice of the native.

The principal food of the great body of people who inhabit this province is rice, of which, from the fertility of the soil, the combined result of an ardent sun, and the saturating periodical rains, two crops are obtained annually, besides a variety of other cerealia and pulse. The first harvest is gathered about the end of August; the second, which is the greatest, in December; the lesser articles from February until the end of April; so that the land yields its fruits almost the whole year. In general, the supply is so abundant as to render Bengal the granary of India, and it is at very distant intervals that a season is not bountiful. The natives, from their indolent and improvident habits, never practised the precaution of keeping a stock of grain in reserve, the knowledge of which, under a native government, would have exposed them to its extortions. When a season of drought, therefore, intervenes, the ground is parched up, and a scarcity ensues, which is aggravated to the poor by the artifices of the grain-dealers: should a deficiency of rain continue through two succeeding seasons, the grain in store would be wholly unequal to the supply of a people whose subsistence is almost entirely vegetable.

The exportation of grain from the corn districts, and the returns of salt, constitutes the principal objects of internal trade. The importation of cotton from the western provinces, and the exchange of betel-nut, together with a few articles of less note, complete the supply for internal consumption. Piece-goods, silk, saltpetre, opium, sugar, and indigo, formerly passed almost wholly through the Company's hands; but now all sorts of traffic are much more open, and practised generally by every description of merchant. Grain, the internal commerce of which is entirely conducted by the natives, supplies the consumption of the cities and the export trade of Bengal; but, except in cities, the great mass of the population is every where subsisted from the produce of their immediate neighbourhood.

Plain muslins, distinguished by their various names, according to the closeness or fineness of their texture, as well as flowered, striped, or checkered, denominated from their patterns, are fabricated chiefly in the province of Dacca. The manufacture of the thinnest sort of that muslin is almost confined to that quarter; other kinds, more closely woven, are manufactured on the western side of the Delta of the Ganges; and a different sort, distinguished by more rigid texture, does not seem to be limited to any district. Coarse muslins in the shape of turbans, handkerchiefs, &c. are made in almost every district, and the northern parts of Benares afford both plain and flowered mus-

lins, which are not ill adapted for common use, though, like the European article, incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca.

Under the general name of calicoes are included various sorts of cotton cloth, such as baftaes, cossaes, &c., to which no English names have as yet been affixed; they are found every where, and are, for the most part, known in Europe by their Indian denominations. Pack-thread is woven in sackcloth in many places, more especially on the northern frontier of Bengal, where it is employed as clothing by the mountaineers. A sort of canvas is made from cotton in the neighbourhood of Chittagong, Patna, and some other places, and blankets for common use are made every where. A coarse cotton cloth, dyed red with cheap materials, is chiefly manufactured in the centre of the Doab; other sorts, more especially blue, are prepared for inland commerce and exportation; both fine and coarse calicoes receive a topical dyeing, with permanent and fugitive colours. The zemindary of Benares, the city of Patna, and the neighbourhood of Calcutta, are the principal seats of this manufacture of chintzes, which appears to be an original art in India, invented long ago, and brought to a perfection not yet surpassed in Europe. Dimities of various kinds, and damask linen, are made at Dacca, Patna, Taunda, and other places.

The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk and taffeta, both plain and flowered; tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the manufacture of Benares; plain gauzes are woven in the western and southern corners of Bengal. The weaving of mixed goods of silk and cotton flourishes chiefly at Maulda, at Boglipoor, and at some towns in the district of Burdwan; a considerable quantity of filature silk is exported to the west of India, and much is sold at Mirzapoor, passing thence to Central Hindostan.

Tusser, a wild silk, is procured in abundance from countries bordering on Bengal, and also from districts included within its limits. The wild silk-worms are there found on various sorts of trees, common in the forests of Silhet, Assam, and the Deccan; the cones are large, but sparingly covered with silk, which in colour and lustre is greatly inferior to that of the domesticated insect. Its cheapness renders it useful in the fabrication of coarse silk; the production may be greatly increased by encouragement, and a very large quantity might be exported at a moderate expense. It might be applied in Europe to the preparation of silk goods, and, mixed with wool or cotton, form, as it does in India, a beautiful and acceptable article of dress. The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of the Bahar province, under which head (as also that of opium) it will be found described.

The export of hides from Bengal may be greatly increased. Including buffaloes, it is calculated that the Company's old provinces (Bengal, Bahar, and Benares) contain fifty millions of cattle; but until recently the demand was so small, that the currier frequently neglected to take the hide off the cattle that died a natural death. About 1797 some Europeans engaged in the tanning of leather, and the manufacture of boots and shoes, which although not so strong and water-proof as the British, answer so well that they have greatly reduced the exportation. The natives have also arrived at considerable perfection in the fabrication of saddles, harness, and military accoutrements, and other articles composed principally of leather. An excellent canvass is now manufactured in Calcutta, and sold much cheaper than that imported from Europe. Now that freight is reduced to its minimum, corn of various kinds, and more especially rice, admits of exportation, as also rum, little inferior to that of Jamaica, with liquorice and ginger, which last is annually exported in increasing quantities.

It is extremely probable that an-

notto, madder, coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and even tea, would thrive in British India, which now comprehends every variety of climate. The plant from the seeds of which annotto is prepared is already cultivated in Bengal, and coffee plants have thriven in botanical and private gardens. Madder is a native of the mountainous regions bordering on Bengal, and under the name of munjeet is already a considerable article of export. Various drugs used in dyeing are sent to England, such as galls, turmeric, safflower, and also myrobalans, which are here used in preference to galls. Morinda roots, which give a permanent colour to cotton, and blossoms of the nyctanches, which give a durable colour to silk.

Gum-arabic, and many other sorts of gums and resins for manufactures, are the produce of trees that grow spontaneously in Bengal, besides a multitude of medicinal drugs and gums, which abound in Hindostan and the adjacent countries. Vegetable oil, more particularly linseed, might be supplied from these provinces, which are also adapted for the cultivation of flax. Tincal, brought from the table-land of Tibet, is among the exports from Bengal, and vegetable and mineral alkalies may hereafter become a considerable article of commerce. The fossil alkali is found in abundance, and the forests of Bengal are capable of furnishing potash in large quantities. The preparation of sal-ammoniac might be advantageously connected with the manufacture of saltpetre.

Besides the articles above enumerated, having reference principally to Bengal, the Indian markets furnish some previously imported from China, the Eastern Isles, and Gulf of Persia, aloes, assafœtida, benzoin, camphor, cardamoms, cassia lignea, cassia, and cassia buds, arrangoes, cowries, China root, cinnabar, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, elephants' teeth, rattans, mother-o'-pearl, pepper, quicksilver, rhubarb, sago, scammony, senna, and saffron; and might supply anise, coriander, cumminseed, and many other commodities which would occupy too much room to enumerate. Of hemp and flax, in all their varities, and also of the different substitutes for these articles, Bengal produces a greater abundance than any other country. The true hemp is found in many parts, but is little used by the natives, except for the seed oil as a medicine, and for an intoxicating ingredient, often mixed with the tobacco of the hooka.

The exports to Europe and the United States of America still constitute the most considerable portion of the foreign commerce of Bengal. The trade to China and the eastward now takes precedence of that to the coast of Coromandel, which last has dwindled away since the conquest of Mysore and settlement of the Carnatic, events that have emancipated Madras, with respect to grain, from her former dependence on Bengal.

Owing to its admirable facility of transportation by water the internal commerce of Bengal is very great, but, as may be supposed in a country so productive and thickly populated, by far the most important interchange is in the article of rice. Of this grain in Bengal there is annually a great variation of price, the difference between the months of July and December respectively being very remarkable, and a source of great profit to opulent speculators, but to the indigent classes of cultivators of infinite damage. These last obtain rice for seed, and for the consumption of their families, either by a ruinous mortgage of the ensuing crop, or at an exorbitant rate of interest in the month of July, a period when the price is almost uniformly at the highest. In January, when the principal harvest is gathered, they are under the immediate necessity of selling the produce of their fields to discharge the instalments then due, as they have neither means to convey the grain to a distant market, nor resources to enable them to postpone its sale until a more favourable pe-

riod. They are thus compelled at once to glut a confined market with the whole produce of their village, where the only purchasers are the rich speculators, who are consequently enabled to fix the prices at their own discretion. The evil is less felt in the vicinity of great towns or navigable rivers, nor does the Calcutta price essentially vary at those periods which in the interior of the province are the cheapest and dearest of the year. An investigation, made in 1815, tended to prove that the ten years from 1793 to 1803 were collectively cheaper than the ten preceding and following, and that the price of rice and similar articles has not experienced any permanent augmentation since A.D. 1761. Since 1793, the average prices of ploughing cattle have experienced a rise of seventy-five per cent.; but the hire of coolies, or day labourers, in the country, has not altered, being still four and a half and five pons of cowries per day. The rise of wages paid to labourers by natives who cultivate their own lands has been, on the other hand, considerable. In 1793, an able servant received about four rupees per annum with his clothing and diet, whereas in 1814 they received six and eight rupees yearly, and in some situations even more. Near Calcutta in harvest time, the usual price of 640 seers of paddy or rice in the husk, is five rupees five annas.

The inland navigation employs a great many vessels, and it is interesting to note, at a mart of great resort, the various constructions of boats assembled from different quarters, each adapted to the nature of the rivers they usually traverse. The flat clinker-built vessels of the western districts would be ill adapted to the wide and stormy navigation of the lower Ganges. The unwieldy bulk of the lofty boats used on the Ganges from Patna to Calcutta, would not suit the rapid and shallow rivers of the western tracts, nor the narrow creeks that the vessels pass in the eastern navigation; and the low but deep boats of these districts are not adapted to the shoals of the western rivers. In one navigation, wherein the vessels descend with the stream and return with the track rope, their construction consults neither aptitude for the sail nor for the oar. In the other, wherein boats are assisted by the stream of the creek, and opposed by the current of the next, as in the Sunderbunds, and under banks impracticable for the tracking rope, their principal dependence is on the oar, for a winding course in narrow channels permits no reliance on the sail. Often grounding in the shallows, vessels with keels would be unsafe, and all Bengalese boat constructions want this addition so necessary for sailing.

These useful vessels are also very cheaply found. A circular board tied to a bamboo forms an oar, a wooden triangular frame, loaded with some heavy substance, is the anchor; a few bamboos lashed together supply the mast; a cane of the same species serves as a yard for the sail, which is made of coarse sackcloth; some from the twine made of the stem of the rushy crotularia, or of the hibiscus. The trees of the country afford resins to pay the vessels, and a platform of mats, thatched with straw, supplies the stead of a deck to shelter the merchandize. The vessels are navigated with equal frugality; the boatmen receive little more than their food, which is most commonly supplied in grain, together with an inconsiderable allowance of money, for the purchase of salt and the supply of other petty wants. Fifty years ago, Major Rennell estimated the number of boatmen employed on the inland navigation of Bengal and Bahar at thirty thousand, but ten times that number would apparently be nearer the mark in such a region of rivers, where almost every cultivator and fisherman is also occasionally a navigator.

In the land carriage the owners of the cattle are also the principal traffickers, oftener purchasing at one market to sell at another, than let-

ting their cattle to hire to resident merchants. They transport their merchandize on oxen trained to burthen; sometimes, but not frequently, on horses of the tattoo breed, and still more rarely on buffaloes. The latter, although more docile are more sluggish and slower travellers than the ox, and do not bear a much greater burthen; besides which they are too fond of lying down in the many waters they have to wade through with their loads.

The highways throughout Bengal, except in the immediate vicinity of the principal civil and military stations, are not generally in a condidition for wheel carriages or for distant journies. At present the beaten pathway through Bengal directs the traveller, but no artificial road or any accommodation, and in the rainy season his progress is almost wholly barred. The total decay of the public roads must be ascribed to the want of substantial and durable materials for their construction. The Bengal government have completed a road from Calcutta to Benares, but even this road, for the space of about seventy miles through the plains of Bengal, is not passable for wheeled carriages during several months of the year. A road to Juggernauth has been recently constructed, and an officer is now employed in opening a direct communication between Calcutta and Nagpoor, by a road intended to traverse the wilds and fastnesses of Gundwana, which have for ages formed an impenetrable barrier between Bengal and the Deccan.

As yet Bengal may be said to have but one harbour of maritime export, which is Calcutta, although square-rigged vessels of moderate burthen occasionally load rice in some of the Sunderbund rivers, and vessels of large dimensions are built at, and sail from Islamabad, the capital of Chittagong. But the aggregate is insignificant compared with the commerce of the great metropolis, under which head some further details will be found.

The original manner in which all internal commerce seems to have been conducted in Bengal was at hauts or open markets, and this practice is still very prevalent. These hauts are held on certain days only, and are resorted to by petty venders and traders, who wish to dispose of their commodities by retail. They are usually established in open plains, where a flag-staff is erected, to the vicinity of which the farmer brings the produce of his lands, the mechanic of his workshop, and the fisherman of his net. On the festivals of certain Hindoo gods, and of persons reputed saints by the Mahomedans, a great number of persons assemble at spots esteemed peculiarly sacred, and traders embrace these opportunities of finding a market for their goods, in supplying the wants of the multitude. In Bengal a bazar is a daily market, where things in common use are regularly sold, and it is not unusual to have them in a haut, where a number of petty venders besides the established shopkeepers frequent them. In gunges or bunders the chief commodities sold are grain and the necessaries of life, and they often include bazars and hauts, where the articles are sold by retail and in great variety. It is a very common termination for the names of towns in Bengal, where it is usually restricted to places that have water-carriage. Dokan a shop, and dokandar a shopkeeper, are Persian words; but until the arrival of the Mahomedans such establishments were probably very rare, or did not at all exist in Bengal, where a vender sitting in the open air, surrounded by his goods, was the original native manner of selling commodities; and in many parts of the province the number of shops is still remarkably small.

Out of Calcutta, and the two large cities of Dacca and Moorshedabad, the usual currency of Bengal is silver and cowries; gold seldom appears, and copper has never been introduced. Some years ago gold in the provincial tracts was abundant, but has since become very scarce, which

is a fortunate result for the poor, who were greatly cheated in this article by the money-changers. The most common silver currency is the new milled coinage of Calcutta, of which, however, a considerable portion becomes speedily depreciated. In the country there is still a considerable number of the old unmilled coinage, which is subjected to a heavy batta or exchange; but there all minor transactions, and even some of considerable magnitude, are settled by cowries, which shell forms an excellent medium of exchange among many nations widely separated from each other, and has the recommendation of being altogther inimitable.

Throughout the province there is no uniformity of weights and measures, which not only vary in every market, but are different in the same market for different kinds of goods. There are even different weights for the same species, rice being sold by one weight and bought by another. Neither are there any stamps on the weights, which are usually bits of stone. There is no denomination of weight greater than a maund, which is subdivided into forty seers. In Bengal a factory maund weighs seventy-four pounds ten ounces, and a factory seer one pound thirteen ounces; but the bazar maund is ten per cent. heavier, and equals eighty-two pounds two ounces avoirdupois. Liquids are sold by the seer or maund, that is, by vessels supposed to contain these weights. The grain measures are of basket-work in the shape of a hemisphere, and are supposed, when heaped, to contain a certain quantity of rice in the husk.

During the Hindoo government, bankers, or dealers in money, were probably of small importance, and low in rank; but on the Mahomedan conquest, commerce seems to have increased, and to facilitate its operations bankers were introduced from the west of India. During the Mahomedan sway the revenue was remitted to Moorshedabad by these bankers, but since the British ascendancy this branch of profit has been lost to them in the provincial parts, where they are now chiefly employed by the landholders in keeping their rents, paying the revenue, and taking care of the surplus. Potdars, or money-changers, are a very numerous class, but many of them, having no shop, sit in the open air with heaps of cowries placed before them. In the more rural tracts the money-changer goes to market with a bag of cowries on his head; if a rich man, with a loaded ox, which, if strong, may carry to the value of 150 rupees. All the early time of the market he sells cowries for silver to the people, and in the evening the various hucksters bring back their cowries and exchange them for silver, paying a batta in exchange each way to the potdar. In Calcutta cowries are reckoned thus, but in the country parts they are much cheaper:

4 cowries ..... 1 gunda.
20 gundas ..... 1 pon.
32 pons ..... 1 current rupee, less than 2*s.* (2,560 cowries).

It is customary with the money-changers to lend to all servants who have monthly wages, and at the end of the month, when the wages become due, they return the loan in silver; for all this class, if trusted, anticipate their income. Labourers among the natives receive their daily pay in cowries; the daily markets, even of Europeans, are made with these shells; they are distributed in alms, used on all occasions, and are, in fact, an excellent unforgeable circulating medium, and a proof of cheapness in whatever country they form the common currency. The natives of course become well acquainted with their quality, and a Bengalese huckster refuses as stoutly a cowry with a hole in it, as in England a shopkeeper does a Birmingham shilling.

The inhabitants of Bengal Proper are certainly numerous in proportion to the tillage and manufactures that employ their industry. It has, however, met with checks, as happened in 1770, when it is supposed nearly

one-fifth perished by famine. In 1784 the same calamity prevailed, but in a much less degree; in 1787 many lives were lost in the eastern districts by inundation, and in 1788 by a partial scarcity; but since the period last mentioned, an interval of thirty-nine years, famine and even scarcity have been unknown, a fact probably not to be paralleled in Asiatic history. Various estimates of the total population have been made at different times, but until 1801, during the administration of the Marquis Wellesley, no approach to actual investigation was ever attempted. An inquiry of this description requires to be conducted with peculiar delicacy, the natives in general being averse to even the semblance of innovation, and to any new arrangement that tends to bring them more immediately under the observation of the magistrate, or to impose on them either additional duties or expense. Neither can accurate returns be expected from the zemindars, who are jealous of the intentions and views of government. Different indirect expedients have in consequence been resorted to, such as, a computation from the quantity of salt consumed, which, being a monopoly, could be ascertained with tolerable precision.

In 1801, by the directions of the Marquis Wellesley, then governor-general, the Board of Revenue in Bengal circulated various questions on statistical subjects to the magistrates and collectors of the different divisions, with the view of ascertaining the population and resources of their respective districts. The returns to these were, with some valuable exceptions, rather hastily made, and without due consideration of the subject; but it is remarkable, that all these public functionaries, either from the fear of appearing to exaggerate, or from the novelty of the subject, kept greatly within the real amount, which we shall exemplify by a comparison of their estimates with others subsequently made, and under more favourable circumstances, by Dr. Francis Buchanan. In 1807, 1808, and 1809, this gentleman was deputed by the government to survey and report on the Bengal districts of Rungpoor, Dinagepoor, and Purneah, in the prosecution of which the public officers of government, European and native, were directed to render him every assistance, and to furnish him with every requisite record and document.

The results of his survey were most voluminous, and minute reports on the resources and actual condition of each district, accompanied by statistical tables of the most elaborate description, comprehending not only the population of the whole, but of every police subdivision and town of any importance or magnitude; and on the whole, he was of opinion that the total amount, as given in his tables, was not materially wrong, although they might err in particular instances. Dr. Buchanan was selected by the government for this deputation, on account of the well-earned reputation he had already acquired for general knowledge, soundness of judgment, and habits of laborious research; and certainly no person of equal abilities, with the exception of Mr. Bayley, ever directed so much attention to this particular object, or executed it with so many collateral advantages. The result of his investigation, however, gives so enormous a population, when compared with prior estimates, as utterly to astonish the mind; yet his conclusions succeeded a most severe examination of all the existing circumstances, while others were made, mostly after very superficial consideration, and some were evidently the effusions of mere fancy and conjecture. When we add to this, that Mr. Bayley's subsequent investigation of the population of Burdwan, in 1814, tended completely to corroborate Dr. Buchanan's calculations, we must think them entitled to a decided preference. To render the subject more intelligible, we subjoin the respective estimates of the magistrate, collector, and Dr. Francis Buchanan.

Rungpoor District:

The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,000,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	400,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1809	2,735,000

Dinagepoor District:

The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	700,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,000,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1808	3,000,000

Purneah District:

The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,400,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,450,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1810	2,900,000

We now proceed to give a detailed statement of the number of inhabitants in Bengal, Bahar, and Benares, extracted from the returns of the magistrates and collectors in 1801, with the exception of the three districts above-mentioned, and Boglipoor and Bahar, which are taken from Dr. Francis Buchanan's statistical tables, and of Burdwan from Mr. Bayley's essay in the Asiatic Researches. It will immediately strike the reader, that if the population of the other districts be as much underrated as of those surveyed by Dr. Buchanan and Mr. Bayley, great as the sum-total is, it might be almost doubled.

Population of the Province of Bengal:

The twenty-four pergunnahs, including Calcutta, 1801		1,625,000
Midnapoor district, 1801		1,500,000
Hooghly district, 1801		1,000,000
Burdwan district, 1814		1,450,000
Jessore district, 1801		1,200,000
Nuddea district, 1801		800,000
		7,575,000
Dacca Jelalpoor district and city, 1801	1,140,000	
Backergunge district, 1801	926,000	
Chittagong district, 1801	1,200,000	
Tipera district, 1801	750,000	
Mymunsingh district, 1801	1,360,000	
Silhet district, 1801	500,000	
		5,876,000
Moorshedabad district and city, 1801	1,020,000	
Birbhoom district, 1801	700,000	
Rajeshahy district, 1801	1,500,000	
Rungpoor district, 1809	2,735,000	
Dinagepoor district, 1808	3,000,000	
Purneah district, 1810	2,900,000	
		11,855,000
Total Bengal		25,306,000

Population of Bahar Province:

Boglipoor district, 1811	2,755,000	
Bahar district, 1812	2,019,000	
Sarun district, 1801	1,200,000	
Shahabad district, 1801	2,000,000	
Tirhoot district, 1801	2,000,000	
Ramghur district, by estimate, 1801	1,000,000	
		10,974,000
Benares province, 1801, by estimate		3,000,000
Total population of the British old provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Benares, containing 162,000 square miles		39,679,000

Bengal comprehends within its geographical limits three large cities, Calcutta, Dacca, and Moorshehabad, besides many prosperous inland trading towns, such as Hooghly, Serajegunge, Bogwangola, and Cossimbazar, each containing a great population, but of which no authentic returns have as yet been published. The following is the number of inhabitants reported on very probable grounds, to be resident in the cities and towns respectively, to which the numbers are attached:—

Calcutta	500,000
Dacca	180,000
Moorshedabad	150,000
Burdwan	53,000
Chandernagore	41,377
Purneah	33,000
Rajamahal	30,000
Dinagepoor	28,000
Naraingunge	20,000
Malda	18,000
Gour	18,000
Chandercona	18,145

Villages of from 100 to 500 inhabitants are astonishingly numerous, and in some parts form a continued chain of many miles along the banks of the rivers, similar to what we find described in the most populous tracts of the Chinese empire. While passing them on the inland navigation, it is pleasing to view the cheerful bustle and crowded population by land and water; men, old women, children, birds and beasts, all mixed and intimate, evincing a consciousness of safety and security from oppression, to be seen in no native governed territory. Nor have the inhabitants of Bengal any real evils to complain of, except such as originate from their own propensity to litigation, and from the occasional predatory visits of gang robbers and river pirates. To protect them from the last, partly owing to their own want of energy, the exertions of the government and their servants in the magistracy have been most strenuous, and continued with such increasing vigour, that there is at last a prospect of this desirable object being accomplished. With respect to the first, the Bengalese are, from some inherent peculiarity, extremely prone to legal disputation; and, politically pacific, seem socially and domestically martial. Among them war seems frittered into law, and the ferocious passions dwarfed down to the bickering and snarling of the hut and village. In this vociferation they are greatly assisted by the females, who after the age of thirty generally turn termagants, and become agitated by a furious spirit of discord, which they vent in such loud, virulent, and indecent railings as are no where else to be paralleled.

In the revenue system of Bengal, the ryot, or cultivator, is described as a tenant paying rent, and his superior as a landlord or landholder; but, strictly speaking, his payment heretofore was a contribution to the state, levied by officers named zemindars, standing between him and the government. In the rule for the division of the crop, whether under special engagements or by custom, their proportions are known, *viz.*

Half to the landlord, and half to the tenant.

One-third to the landlord, and two-thirds to the tenant.

The standard for the regulation of rates has been lost, but we learn from other sources, that the assessment was limited not to exceed in the whole a fourth part of the actual gross produce of the soil. In early times the demands of the Hindoo sovereigns were still more moderate. The Mahabarat states that the prince was to levy a fiftieth part of the produce of mines, and a tenth of corn. Menu and other legislators authorize the sovereign to exact an eighth, a tenth, or a twelfth of grain, according to circumstances, and a sixth of the clear annual produce of trees.

With respect to the much-disputed nature of landed property in Bengal, in one point of view, the zemindars, as descendants of the ancient independent Rajas, seem to have been tributary princes, in another light only the officers of government; but probably their real character partook of the nature of both. This, however,

must be obviously restricted to Rajas who possessed great zemindaries. Numerous landholders subordinate to these, as well as others independent of them, cannot evidently be traced to a similar origin, and the Mahomedan sovereigns and governors of Bengal seem to have been altogether indifferent with respect to the mutations of landed property, provided the new proprietor paid his revenue.

The zemindars are now acknowledged, for various reasons, and from considerations of expediency, which decided the question, as proprietors of the soil. Yet it has been admitted from high authority, that anciently the sovereign was proprietor of the soil; that the zemindars were officers of revenue, justice, and police, and that their office was frequently, but not necessarily, hereditary. To collect and assess the contributions regulated as they were by local customs or particular agreements, but varying at the same time with the necessities of the state, was the business of the zemindar, as a permanent, if not as a hereditary officer. For the due execution of his charge, he was checked by permanent and hereditary officers of revenue and account.

Various changes have taken place since the British conquest, in the mode of collecting the land revenue of Bengal. From 1767 to 1769 the collection was entirely under Mahomed Reza Khan. Mr. Verelst, in 1769 sent supervisors into several districts. In 1770 two boards of revenue were appointed, one at Moorshedabad and one at Patna. In 1772 Mr. Hastings, in consequence of instructions from home, deprived Mahomed Reza of all power, and made Calcutta the seat of fiscal government. In 1773 the collectors were withdrawn, and six provincial councils appointed. In 1781 these councils were withdrawn, collectors again deputed, and a supreme board of revenue appointed in Calcutta, which still continues. The total amount of the land revenue collected from 1772 to 1789 was remarkably equal, averaging about 295 lacks of current rupees.

In 1793, during the administration of Lord Cornwallis, the territorial revenue of the Company's old provinces (Bengal, Bahar, and Benares), which had before fluctuated, were permanently and irrevocably fixed, at a certain valuation of the property moderately assessed; but this permanent settlement has not yet been introduced into the territories subsequently obtained by cession and conquest. The mighty mass of papers, with which the agitation of this question crowded the East-India Company's records, proves the ability, labour, and anxiety with which it was discussed.

An account of the Indian debts and credits on the 30th April 1822:—

Amount of bond, register, and other debts bearing interest	£31,623,780
Arrears and debts not bearing interest	6,966,877
Gross amount of the territorial debt on the 30th April 1822	£38,590,657
Deduct Territorial Assets:	
Cash in the public treasuries	£10,634,459
Bills receivable	449,475
Stores	3,027,818
Debts owing to Government	6,412,023
Salt, opium, grain, &c. in store	1,680,929
	22,204,704
Net excess of territorial debts in India, beyond the assets	£16,385,953

Total revenue of the Bengal Presidency, 1821-22	£18,340,502
Ditto ..... Madras ditto ..... ditto	5,557,129
Ditto ..... Bombay ditto ..... ditto	2,855,741
Total, 1821-22	£21,753,372

In 1821-22 the gross receipts on account of salt amounted to current rupees 2,06,07,680; the charges to 59,71,710 current rupees. The quantity of salt formerly sold within the year was from 4,000,000, to 4,500,000 maunds, but it has been gradually increased, and of late years the sales have extended to 4,800,000 maunds.

In 1821-22 the gross receipts on account of opium amounted to current rupees 1,12,57,275. The cost and charges to 9,86,722 current rupees.

	Current rupees.		Current rupees.
Stamp duties, 1822-23 (per estimate) ...	21,57,600.	Charges	5,80,000
Customs, old territory, 1821-22 do.....	47,90,014.	Ditto	7,06,651
Customs in the Conquered and Ceded Territories, 1821-22	84,74,490.	Ditto	12,01,932

In the ceded provinces the public revenue has always been satisfactorily collected, if compared with the collection only a few years ago in the lower districts, even under all the advantages arising from a permanent settlement. For a considerable period of time subsequent to the conclusion of that settlement, the ultimate arrears stood in a much higher ratio to the jumma, than they did in the ceded districts a very few years after their acquisition, nor was it until the year 1800 that they were reduced within a moderate compass. Hence a new argument arises against a premature settlement in perpetuity of the upper provinces, which under their present constitution are sufficiently prosperous, the cultivation extending, and the population increasing, and becoming daily more contented and tractable, all of which improvements have taken place under a system of temporary leases, and in spite of adverse and precarious seasons.

The Mahomedans, from the beginning of their power, employed the Persian language in the affairs of government, and, notwithstanding its clumsy and cumbersome arithmetic, in the collection also of the revenue. This practice aided them in maintaining their authority, and enabled them, instead of blindly depending on native functionaries, to look into the conduct and details of public business, as well as to keep intelligible registers of the income and expenditure of the state. The native Hindoos, finding that a knowledge of the language of government was necessary to every concern of revenue and justice, made exertions to acquire it, and in process of time became teachers of it throughout the whole Mogul empire. At present, owing to the paucity of European agency, and its enormous expense, the size of the districts, and the multifarious duties of the collectors, it appears manifest that these officers can only inspect much the greater portion of business through the medium of native servants, that is to say, through the falsest medium possible.

Among the various pretexts adopted by the landowners in this province for reducing the revenue to a trifle, one of the most common and successful is, to write down a large portion of their estates as destroyed by rivers. This furnishes a good plea, not only for a deduction from the revenue assessment, but keeps open a claim for the lands that might be afterwards recovered. In many cases this has succeeded, as no additional revenue is exacted when a river adds new lands to a zemindary; a gradual diminution of the aggregate revenue must be constantly taking place. Under these circumstances, the most substantial advantages would be derived from regular surveys of each district respectively, undertaken by professional persons, and executed in a scientific manner.

In Bengal the class of needy land proprietors is very numerous; but even the greatest zemindars are not in a situation to allow that indulgence and accommodation to their tenants, which might be expected on viewing the nominal extent of their income. Responsible to government

for a tax originally calculated at ten-elevenths of the expected rents, and owing to their own dissolute habits, they have not usually any considerable surplus after their expenditure to compensate for their risk. Any accident, any calamity, may involve a zemindar in difficulties from which no economy or retrenchment can relieve him. Prior to 1790 half the revenues of Bengal were paid by six large zemindaries, *viz.* Rajeshahy, Burdwan, Dinagepoor, Nuddea, Birbhoom, and Calcutta.

Free lands are distinguished according to their appropriations, for Brahmins, bards, encomiastics, ascetics, priests, and mendicants, or as a provision for several public officers. The greater part of the present free lands in Bengal were originally granted in small portions of waste ground. The more extensive tracts of free land are managed in the same mode as estates assessed for revenue, and the subject is adverted to in each district respectively.

Sayer revenue of the nature of land rent, consists of ground rent for the sites of houses and gardens; revenue drawn from fruit trees, pastures, mathes, rent of fisheries, and other variable imposts. Many articles of sayer formerly collected within the village have been abolished; such, for example, as market tolls and personal taxes. Ground-rents never were generally levied from cultivators engaged in husbandry. No branch of administration requires more prudence and circumspection, or a more accurate knowledge of the temper and character of the people of India, than the imposition of new taxes, and it is always preferable to seek an increase by the renewal of old, rather than the establishment of new taxes. The civil and domestic usages of the natives are so interwoven with their religious rites, and they are so particularly alive to every innovation or departure from established custom, that in fixing a tax on articles of general consumption, it is not to be considered whether it really be more or less oppressive than a tax directly collected from the individual, but whether it be so felt by him By an impost on articles of consumption, the subject who is compelled by his inclination or necessities to the use of it, thus gradually and almost imperceptibly contributes to the revenue of the state; while a personal demand on him for the payment of a sum much less than the aggregate of what he indirectly contributes, may be considered by him an extortion, which he is warranted in evading if he can. Owing also to the abuses inseparable from all transactions carried on by native officers with small salaries, placed beyond the inspection and control of the Company's European functionaries, the community when a duty is laid on, have in general to pay almost twice as much as ever finds its way into the public treasury.

A poll-tax called jaziyeh was imposed by the Khalif Omar, on all persons not of the Mahomedan faith. The Mussulmaun conquerors of Hindostan imposed it on the Hindoos as infidels, but it was abolished by the emperor Acber. At a subsequent period Aurungzebe attempted to revive it, but without success. In addition to the other sources of revenue, the British government levy a tax on Hindoo pilgrims, in continuance of former usage, at Gaya, Juggernauth, and Allahabad.

The civil and military government of the territories under the Bengal presidency, now comprehending the richest portion of Hindostan proper, is vested in a Governor-general and three councillors. Vacancies in the council are supplied by the Court of Directors, with the sanction of the India Board, from civil servants of not less than twelve years' standing. For the administration of justice throughout the subordinate provinces, there are in the civil and criminal departments one supreme court, stationed in Calcutta, and limited in its jurisdiction to the Maharatta ditch; six courts of appeal and circuit: the Calcutta, Moorshedabad, Dacca, Patna, Benares, and Bareilly; and forty-

seven zillah and city courts, stationed as follows:

Agra,	Juanpoor,
Allahabad,	Jungle Mahals,
Alighur,	Meerut,
Backergunge,	Midnapoor,
Bahar,	Mirzapoor,
Bareilly,	Moorshedabad,
Benares,	Moradabad,
Birbhoom,	Mymunsingh,
Boglipoor,	Nuddea,
Bundelcund,	Purnea,
Burdwan,	Rajeshahy,
Caunpoor,	Ramghur,
Chittagong,	Rungpoor,
Cuttack,	Sarun,
Dacca Jelalpoor,	Shahabad,
Dinagepoor,	Saharunpoor,
Etawah,	Shahjehanpoor,
Furruckabad,	Silhet,
Goruckpoor,	Tiperah,
Hooghly,	Tirhoot,
Jessore,	24-Pergunnahs.

The city courts are:

Benares,	Moorshedabad,
Dacca,	Patna.

The courts of circuit consist of three judges with a register, together with native officers, Mahomedan and Hindoo. The judges make their circuits at stated periods, and also hold regular and frequent gaol deliveries. They try criminal offences according to the Mahomedan law; but when the sentence is capital, or imprisonment is awarded beyond a defined period, it does not take effect until it receives confirmation from the superior criminal court stationed in Calcutta, and named the Sudder Nizamut Adawlut, or chief criminal court. The principal business of this court is to revise trials; but it is in no case permitted to aggravate the severity of the sentence.

In the provincial districts, the officer who in his criminal capacity has the appellation of magistrate, is also the civil judge of the district or city in which he resides. He tries all suits of a civil nature, provided the cause of action has arisen, the property concerned be situated, or the defendant be resident, within his jurisdiction. To try suits of a small amount the judge may appoint native commissioners, from whose decisions an appeal lies to the judge; and, with a few exceptions, the decisions of the judges are appealable to the provincial courts of circuit within the bounds of which he resides. Each district court has a register, with one or more assistants from among the junior civil servants, and each court is provided with natives duly qualified to expound the Hindoo and Mahomedan law.

In criminal matters the magistrates of districts are vested with powers to apprehend and examine all offenders. On slight offences they may pass and execute sentence; in cases of greater atrocity, it is their business to secure the supposed delinquents for trial before the court of circuit, which is effected by committing or holding to bail. Each zillah or district is subdivided into portions usually about twenty miles square, and in each of these a darogah, or head police-officer, is established, with armed followers, who is empowered to apprehend on a written charge, and to take security when the offence is bailable for appearance before the magistrate. The average size of a Bengal district may be taken at 6,000 square miles; but in particular instances, owing to the great extent of waste and woodlands or the reverse, the dimensions vary extremely. Burdwan contains only 2,400, and Ramghur above 10,000.

The ultimate court of appeal in civil matters sits in the city of Calcutta, and is styled the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, or chief civil court. To this court all causes respecting personal property beyond 5,000 rupees value, are appealable: with regard to real property, it is calculated by certain rules, differing according to the nature and tenure of the property. From this court an appeal lies to the King in council, if the value of the property concerned amounts to £5,000.

Under the Mahomedan government suitors pleaded their own causes, and the practice continued until 1793; when regular native advocates were

appointed. These pleaders are usually selected from the Mussulman college at Calcutta, and Hindoo college at Benares, and the rate of fees is fixed by public regulation. This institution ensures suitors against negligence or misconduct, on the part either of the judge or his native assistants, the advocates being often as conversant in the business of the court as any of the public officers. As an ultimate security for the purity of justice, provisions have been made against the corruption of those who administer it. The receiving of a sum of money or other valuable gift, or under colour thereof, by a British subject in the service of the government, is deemed to be taken by extortion, and is a misdemeanor at law.

Written pleadings in the native languages have been introduced, for the purpose of bringing litigation to a point, and enforcing in legal proceedings as much precision as the habits of the people will admit. Before this modification, the charge and defence consisted of confused oral complaints, loudly urged on the one side, and as loudly contradicted on the other. In receiving evidence great indulgence is granted to the scruples of caste, and the prejudices against the public appearance of females so prevalent in eastern countries. Select cases, civil and criminal, are annually published, which reports, by diffusing a knowledge of the legal principles established in the courts of the Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawluts, are productive of essential benefit in the general administration of justice, and tend to prevent litigation, to which the natives are so prone, that in some districts they might almost be reduced to two classes, plaintiffs and defendants. The Marquess Cornwallis, about 1793, allowed all causes to be filed without expense, and the consequence was that the courts were soon overloaded. An institution fee was in consequence established, with a retrospective operation, and the result was that in one day, and in one court, no less than 14,000 causes were struck off. What must the effect have been in the whole province!

The Mahomedan law constitutes ostensibly the ground-work of the criminal jurisprudence of the country; but although the name and many of the external forms of that code be retained, its execution is so corrected in essentials that it may more properly be regarded as the administration of British criminal justice. At present the system of criminal law, as promulgated in the provinces subordinate to the Bengal presidency, is in reality a system of jurisprudence founded on the natural principles of justice; which form, or ought to form, the base of every criminal code. In civil matters the Hindoos and Mahomedans substantially enjoy their respective usage. The prejudices of both are treated with indulgence, and the respect that Asiatic manners enjoin to females of rank is scrupulously enforced.

In the criminal department, no offence has occupied so much of the time and attention of the government and its functionaries as dacoity or gang robbery, which for an astonishing length of time baffled the united efforts of every department; but at length, by unremitted preseverance and vigilance, if not wholly eradicated, it has been greatly diminished. Indeed, generally speaking, this scourge, under which Bengal suffered from the first acquisition of the province until it had reached its acmé in 1807, has been generally suppressed. Robberies, in the ordinary sense of the expression, are still committed; but dacoity, considered as a crime distinguished from all others by its peculiar malignity and by involving the perpetrators in other crimes of a most atrocious and sanguinary character, has been nearly extinguished. The Sunderbunds have always been regarded as peculiarly adapted for the reception and concealment of river pirates: yet even in this labyrinth of wood, water, and rank vegetation, great progress has been made in the xtirpation of gang robbery.

In the ceded and conquered pro-

vinces, although less progress has apparently been made in the suppression of crimes than in the old territories, yet manifest traces are perceptible of the influence of a regular system of civil polity on the great mass of the people. On the first acquisition of these provinces, one of the greatest evils was the private war which the proprietors of estates and individuals carried on against each other. Vindictive assassination, for real or imaginary injuries, was also a crime of frequent occurrence; and both enormities had their origin in the same cause, *viz.* the weakness of the preceding governments, and the want of regular tribunals to take cognizance of wrongs committed by individuals on their fellow subjects. Considerable progress has been made towards the suppression of both these crimes; but murders, perpetrated by a class of people named Thugs, still continue in spite of the increased exertions of the police. In the upper provinces, highway robbery and gang robbery are seldom known to prevail together; the first usually commencing when an effectual check has been given to the last.

As dacoits or gang robbers occupy so prominent a part in the criminal jurisprudence of Bengal, a few more observations towards the development of their character may be usefully employed. Sixty years ago the rivers of Bengal were nearly impassable for unarmed boats, on account of the immense bands of pirates who roamed unchecked through every part of the province; at present, except occasionally in some large rivers near the sea, the inland navigation is wholly free from every perilous obstruction. Among the dacoits in Bengal, many instances occur of whole families practising robbery from generation to generation, and individuals among them boast that their progenitors were hanged, or died in perpetual imprisonment. Their leaders succeed each other like officers of a regular establishment, and being all predestinarians, they are indifferent as to the result of their hazardous career. Nor do they attach obloquy to the name of dacoit: in that character they are something; as labourers or cultivators, nothing. Besides this, they to the last entertain hopes of escaping punishment, either by flying for concealment to the creeks, woods, jungles, or low islands overgrown with rank weeds; or when captured, by the expectation that the terror their name inspires will prevent evidence appearing against them. When they are at last brought to the fatal tree, the dacoits who suffer capital punishment meet their fate with the greatest fortitude, and the exhibition is considered by the lookers-on as a sort of gratis entertainment. The penitence and contrition shewn by criminals in England, when the sentence is on the point of execution, and which makes such a serious and salutary impression on the spectators, is never observed in this country, where in fact felons are much more afraid of transportation than of death.

In Bengal, robbers are not shunned and hated as in Europe. On the contrary, they have homes, often land and cattle, and are not only associated with, but are frequently men of influence in their villages, although their profession be universally known. This can only be ascribed to a general absence of the moral principle, which applies to the Mahomedans as well as to the Hindoos, the lower classes of the former having evidently adopted many of the worst practices of Hindoo idolatry. The dacoits of both religions are not only unrestrained by terrors of conscience, but affect to sanctify their execrable deeds by offerings and invocations to the goddess Cali; and that human blood is now seldom shed on these occasions, is to be attributed to the introduction of the British system of police, which, with all its defects, is perfection compared with that which preceded it. The great mass of Bengalese are certainly not constitutionally brutal or inexorable, on the contrary, they are usually mild and placable; yet it must be admitted, that the cri-

minal records of the province will furnish such instances of cruelty and ferocity, as perhaps the history of no country in Europe can parallel.

To the universal prevalence of perjury may also be attributed the long continuance and existing frequency of gang robbery; and to such a pitch of shameless audacity has this crime long attained, that the judge is often obliged to investigate the character of the witness with more anxiety than that of the prisoner. In 1800, a zemindary dewan, by caste a Brahmin, after having circumstantially sworn to the nature, number, and authors of the wounds inflicted on two of his cutcherry (office) servants, alleged to have been murdered in an attempt to dispossess him of the cutcherry, scarcely blushed when the two men were produced alive and unhurt in court, and merely pleaded in extenuation, that if he had not sworn as he was instructed he would have lost his place. The little obligation attached by the natives to an oath, appears in a great degree to proceed from the nature of their superstition, and the degrading attributes of their deities, as well as the total absence of moral instruction from their system of education, and its necessarian tendency. Hence originates the general exclamation of criminals, when convicted of murder, that it was their destiny, and they seldom or never acknowledge any other motive. It is probable that in time the exemplary punishments inflicted will deaden the alacrity with which crimes have hitherto been committed, and the steady and just administration of the laws go a certain way towards imbuing the inhabitants with a moral principle, or something resembling it. At present they have neither, at least in the true christian sense of the word; but sufficient time has not yet elapsed, so as to occasion any solid improvement of character.

There is no crime more frequent in Bengal and Hindostan generally, than the murdering of children for the sake of the gold and silver ornaments, with which, in spite of every exhortation on the part of the British functionaries, they persevere in adorning them. These horrid crimes are usually perpetrated by friends, neighbours, and relations, unable to resist the tempting opportunity, and the parents would almost appear voluntarily to dress out their child for a victim. The frequent occurrence of the crime, attracted at different periods the attention of the government, and the courts of circuit were consulted as to the possibility of suggesting any preventive expedient, not likely to excite dissatisfaction among the natives by such interference with their domestic usages. Nothing, however, could be devised except increased vigilance in detecting, and rigorous enforcement and publicity of the punishment.

Constituted as the government now is, the zemindars could not with justice be made responsible for the property plundered on their estates, unless they were authorized and required to retain establishments for the seizure of public offenders: an arrangement that would in effect transfer the charge of the police to the zemindars, and again open a door to all the abuses committed by them in former times, when they were entrusted with the police of their respective estates. At present it scarcely ever happens that the zemindars resist the execution of a decree of the civil court, or assemble their people afterwards for the purpose of fighting and dispossessing the person in whose favour the decree had been awarded. By this class, however, the large portion of lands, allotted during the Mogul government for the maintenance of village watchmen, have been long ago appropriated, and have wholly disappeared from the public records. It is consequently to be apprehended that if waste lands were again set apart for that purpose, a similar absorption would take place as soon as they had attained a certain stage of cultivation.

Much might be said respecting the character of the Bengalese zemindars, a most important class of natives, but

it is very difficult to render the subject intelligible to European readers. Like the great mass of the people, a Bengalese zemindar enjoys only the present hour, is improvident of the future, and most of them are mere puppets in the hands of the unprincipled managers of their estates. They are consequently soon involved in difficulties, from which they are unable to extricate themselves, and their estates are sold; but their ruin they impute to the strictness and severity of government in the exaction of the revenue. It was, no doubt, the intention of government to confer an important benefit on this class of subjects, by abolishing the custom of imprisoning them for arrears of revenue; but they assert it has been found, from melancholy experience, that the system of sales and attachments, substituted in its stead, has in the course of a very few years reduced more of the great zemindars in Bengal to distress and beggary, and effected a greater mutation of landed property in the province, than perhaps ever happened in any age or country as the mere consequence of internal regulations. Blind and insensible as the natives are to consequences, they will hardly give themselves the trouble of guarding against a distant evil, or undertake anything for the sake of a remote advantage, more than the mere stimulus of money being necessary to rouse them. To this apathy and supineness in their dispositions, joined to habits of dissipation, extravagance, and disunion, is to be ascribed the ruin of many zemindars; but in other cases this effect has resulted from their estates being over-assessed, and the difficulties in realizing the rents due by sub-tenants and cultivators.

In this province there are many female zemindars, generally subservient to, and under the management of the family Brahmin, who controls their consciences. This person has his own private interests to attend to, and, without appearing, exerts an influence over the public business of the zemindary. The ostensible managing agent submits to the control of a concealed authority, which he must conciliate, and the interests of the state and zemindar equally bend to it. A Brahmin in Bengal not only obtains a lease of land on better terms than any other caste, but also enjoys exemption from various impositions and extortions, to which the less sacred classes are subjected.

Throughout the whole of Bengal, there is very little distinction to be observed between the houses of the meanest peasant and those of the zemindar, which is probably in part owing to the rule of inheritance that prevails, both with Mahomedans and Hindoos, and in families is an interminable source of jealousy, enmity, and dispute. Property of every sort being universally liable to equality of partition among the heirs, must, if persevered in, soon reduce all to the same level, and its progress to the lowest degree be accelerated with an increasing momentum. Another evil consequence of this community of property is, that it deadens all individual exertions for its improvement.

Religious buildings and public edifices of great size are now seldom constructed in Bengal. What wealth remains with the natives is more widely diffused than formerly, and the fortunes accumulated by Europeans are invariably remitted to Europe. This latter class now occupy the stations of those native officers who in former times, either from motives of charity or ostentation, raised those buildings of utility, which are now to be traced out only by their ruins; and in fact the light soil, alluvial situation, and exuberant vegetation of Bengal, are hostile to the permanence of any erections, however well constructed originally. With a particular class of natives it is a very general complaint that they cannot now procure a livelihood in the British provinces. They allege that, under former governments, the number of troops entertained, and the various descriptions of servants required for state and for the revenue

collections, afforded means of employment which are now lost; the troops and officers under the British government being circumscribed to the smallest possible scale. On this account, and probably also the equality of ranks in the distribution of justice, some of the principal inhabitants, especially the Mahomedans, cannot be reconciled to any foreign government; and, reflecting with regret on the loss of their former privileges, view with disgust the impartial system of British jurisprudence, which has wholly neutralized their importance in society. In the course of time it is to be expected that this sensation will subside, and either give place to a conviction of the advantages resulting from the exchange, or be wholly forgotten, by people nearly insensible either to the past or the future. One thing is certain, that owing to the long duration of domestic quiet, they have already forgotten their former condition of turbulence and anarchy, when scarce a year passed over without their being disturbed by the rumour, or terrified with the atrocities, of actual warfare.

The great increase of law suits has been the subject of much animadversion: yet it may be traced to a cause highly honourable to the British government, *viz.* to the increased value of every description of property, but more especially of landed property, and to the confidence felt by the natives in that security. This consequence leads them to prosecute for the recovery of rights, real or imaginary, which in other times, and under other circumstances, they would have abandoned as unworthy of attention; which sentiment has been greatly strengthened by the strict adherence on the part of government to the terms of the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered perpetual. Formerly the cultivators of the soil when oppressed beyond endurance, were accustomed to assemble in crowds, with ploughs and other implements, and demand justice with violent and outrageous clamour; at present they proceed by regular process, and harass each other through the forms of law in the civil and criminal courts.

It is difficult to say whether the great bulk of the natives be decidedly attached to the British government or not, their common speech to European functionaries being a mere rant of praise and flattery; and it may be presumed that those inhabitants with whom the British associate, are not deficient in extolling the happy effects of the British domination. Generally speaking, it is probable that the first class of Hindoo inhabitants are dissatisfied, chiefly from motives of ambition; the middling satisfied and the lower well pleased with the British government, which has so essentially meliorated their condition. On the other hand the higher ranks of Mahomedans, whose government we have subverted, in addition to their religious prejudices, have many political reasons to detest our predominance. The men of opulence now in Bengal are the Hindoo merchants, bankers, and banyans of Calcutta, with a few others at the principal stations. The greatest men formerly were the Mahomedan rulers, whom we have superseded, and the Hindoo zemindars. These two classes are now reduced to poverty, and the lower classes now look up to the official servants and domestics of the the English gentlemen. No native has any motive to distinguish himself greatly in the army where he cannot rise higher than a soubadar, a rank inferior to an ensign.

It has always formed part of the British system to endeavour to raise up a class of respectable landed proprietors, on which account great encouragement has always been given to the permanence in families of landed property; but it is to be feared without success, principally owing to the invincible folly of the native proprietors, and the nature of their law of inheritance, which parcels out their estates into the minutest fragments. At present, it must be confessed there is no intermediate class between the sovereign and the common people,

and the distance between the two is consequently infinite. Notwithstanding the long duration of the Mahomedan sway, it had very little effect on the mass of the people; and our government must have still less, because we do not, like the Mahomedans, mix and coalesce with them; they consequently appear as remote from adopting English customs as the English are from adopting theirs. Respecting the nature of the British government the natives remain superlatively ignorant. In Calcutta a degree of curiosity may sometimes be observed, and a desire to converse on state affairs: but on these occasions the best-informed natives always betray an extreme ignorance. The most learned have no knowledge of the law of nations, nor do they suppose the measures of the supreme power to be founded in equity or moderation, the notion of a supreme executive government prescribing laws and limits to its own authority, not presenting a very intelligible idea to a native. On this account many of them still consider the regulations of government as only temporary, and liable to be altered and rescinded by the interest or caprice of the power that enacted them.

Although the bulk of the natives cannot be described as decidedly attached to the British government, which they certainly do not understand, that government is nevertheless very strong, and secure from any serious internal commotion, for none ever stood more independent of public opinion. To the inhabitants, the political state of the country is a complete incomprehensible mystery; yet it is probable that, since our effectual establishment in 1765, no native ever dreamed of subverting the government. In this point of view the mass of natives are most ignorant and helpless, without concert or combination, and no oppression of the ruling power would produce any resistance that might not be quelled by a company of sepoys. The power of the British government in Bengal is completely despotic, and the submission of its subjects perfect and unqualified. This is, in fact, so complete as to preclude the necessity of coercion or intimidation of any kind; all appearance consequently of military interference may be kept wholly out of sight, and it will be only when European laws, religion, and literature, come to be disseminated, that it will be necessary to draw the reins tighter, to prove that we possess power irresistible to command obedience.

The army is powerful, and may be with certainty depended on, so long as they are regularly paid. The sepoys, like the rest of the people, are entirely uninstructed as to the form of government, policy of their rulers, or justice of their wars, and in this ignorance and apathy consists our strength.

It is a truth perfectly obvious, that the peculiar interests of the British nation recommend the happiness of its native subjects. On the acquisition of these territories, the primary object certainly was to discover what could be obtained from them, not how they might be most benefited. In process of time, however, it became necessary to devise how they might be benefited, in order that the same amount of resources might continue to be drawn from them. Persons who remembered the state of this province in 1769 and 1789, the thirtieth of the revolution, were inclined to think that it exhibited more appearance of opulence at the first than at the last period: an opinion confirmed by the records of the province for the twelve years subsequent to 1769; the decline continuing long after the effects of the famine had ceased to operate. But, without resorting to local mismanagement, the nature of the connexion which binds Bengal to Britain, will sufficiently account for the tendency of its internal condition to deteriorate. All the offices of trust and emolument, civil and military, and the highest lines of commerce, are in the hands of strangers, who, after a temporary residence, depart with the capital they have accumulated, while under native

rulers, even the extortions of rapacity and the drains of tribute again entered circulation, and promoted in some form the territorial industry. Under its present constitution, the remittance, or rather tribute, to Britain, carries off every year a large share of the produce, for which nothing is returned.

Beyond Bengal the natives of the northern mountains prove by their features a Tartar origin; they people the northern boundary of Bengal. On the eastern hills and adjacent plains the peculiar features of the inhabitants shew with equal certainty a distinct origin; and the elevated tract that Bengal includes on the west is peopled from a stock obviously distinct, or rather by several races of mountaineers, the probable aborigines of the country. The latter are most evidently distinguished by their religion, character, language, and manners, as well as by their features, from the Hindoo natives. Under various denominations, they appear formerly to have peopled the vast mountainous tract that occupies Central India, and some of their tribes have not yet emerged from the savage state. In the mixed population of the middle districts the Hindoos may be easily distinguished from the Mahomedans; and among the latter the Mogul, Afghan, and their immediate descendants, may be discriminated from the naturalized Mussulmaun. Among the Hindoos may be recognized the peculiar features of the Bengalese, contrasted with those of the Hindostany.

In this province the first rudiments of education are generally given in small day schools, under the tuition of teachers, who are little respected and poorly rewarded, and are quite different from the gooroos (family priests) who instruct in religion. Children usually go to school at five, and are instructed to read and write at the same time. They begin by tracing letters on the floor with a pencil of steatite, and in five or six months they are thus able to read and write. They then begin to write cyphers on palmyra leaves with a reed and ink, and at the same time learn numeration and the subdivisions of weights and measures, and of time belonging to astronomy, or rather to astrology, the whole occupying about eighteen months. After this progress they begin to write on paper, and to learn to keep accounts, and at the same time to multiply, divide, and subtract, with the rule of practice, in which the usual arithmetic consists.

In this scheme of instruction, accounts and arithmetic are divided into two distinct departments: one for agriculture, and the other for commercial affairs. When both are learned, the former is taught first; but not many of the natives acquire that knowledge, or are able to tell how many begas or fractions a rectangled parallelogram contains: for the Hindoo geometry, as far as is known, in practice proceeds no further. Practical surveyors have no mode of ascertaining the extent of irregular figures but by reducing them to rectangled parallelograms, in which they are guided merely by the eye or by rough estimation; and even in measuring parallelograms, they are destitute of any instrument that can ascertain whether or not all the angles be equal.

The Bengal year 1232 began on the 11th April 1824. When this era was instituted is uncertain; but, according to tradition, is said to have been introduced by one of the Mahomedan kings of Bengal, and seems originally to have had reference to the year of the Hejira, but without adjusting the Bengal solar to the Hejira lunar year, consequently, in three centuries it will have lost about eight years.

In Bengal, parents are generally satisfied with instructing their children in mercantile accounts, and in keeping a very full day or waste-book, in which every transaction is carefully recorded, and to which is added a kind of ledger; but their books do not admit of striking a regular balance, like the Italian method. It is only arithmetic commercial and practical that is taught at school; the ap-

plication to mensuration and to the keeping of books, either of a merchant or landholder, are acquired in some office or shop, where the youth commences as an assistant, and learns the style and manner of correspondence. The use of the sharp iron style for writing on bark and leaves, although the original manner of Hindoo writing, has been entirely abandoned, and the reed pen and bamboo inkstand, introduced by the Mahomedans, are now universally employed, even in writing on the palmyra leaf, which substance is still used for works of value, being more durable than the paper fabricated in the province. Besides paper, the natives pay for writing rather less than one rupee for every 32,000 letters of the alphabet.

It has long been remarked that science and literature are in a progressive state of decay among the natives of India, the number of learned men being not only diminished, but the circle of learning, even among those who still devote themselves to it, greatly contracted. The abstract sciences are abandoned; polite literature neglected; and no branch of learning cultivated but what is connected with the peculiar religious sects and doctrines, or with the astrology of the people. The principal cause of this retrograde condition of literature may be traced to the want of that encouragement which was formerly afforded to it by princes, chieftains, and opulent individuals, under the native governments, now past and gone. Influenced by a desire to retrieve native learning from its prostrate condition, Lord Minto, in 1811, adopted certain measures for the encouragement of erudition and science, by a system of liberal salaries and donations; but it is greatly to be doubted whether, under existing circumstances, it be practicable to reimbue the natives with a taste for their own literature, or if practicable, desirable. With the prospect before them of a long and intimate connexion with their present rulers, it would probably prove a much more advantageous measure to direct their views to European learning and science, by the establishment of schools for the study of the English language in all the principal towns, cities, and civil and military stations. The practicability of such a change has already been demonstrated, in the universal diffusion of the Persian, also a foreign language, and the natives have a peculiar facility in acquiring the English, both as to idiom and pronunciation. Their studies would then assume a more elevated direction, tending to the improvement of their moral and intellectual character, which would gradually wean them from the attachment they still evince to their absurd mythological superstitions, and lead ultimately to the tranquil adoption of a purer and more rational system of religion.

The genuine Bengalese towns are not arranged into streets, but into divisions of east, west, north, south, and centre. In one part the Hindoos reside, in another the Mahomedans, and in a third the native Portuguese, &c. The Hindoo portion is farther subdivided into the quarters of Brahmins, scribes, weavers, oil-makers, washermen, barbers, cultivators, potters, &c., but this distribution is not always strictly observed. It is not the custom to build one house sufficient for the whole family; on the contrary, except among the great, a separate house or hut is generally allotted for each particular purpose, and these huts collectively are surrounded by a fence. The houses of the rich are of brick, and flat-roofed, generally two stories high, but the windows are mere air-holes. In the first story the idol is set up; the upper rooms are occupied by the family. Throughout the province, except in large towns, there are no inns, nor place of accommodation for the mere traveller; yet in every small town he may procure an empty house or hut where he may have shelter.

Many intelligent persons have been of opinion that vegetable food, seasoned with capsicum, and water to drink, is the diet best adapted for a

warm climate: but the justice of this notion there is much reason to question. The natives of Bengal, who subsist exactly in this manner, have extremely weak constitutions, incapable of resisting the slightest change of air or water. It is more probable that those who enjoy a diet which includes animal food, and strong liquors in moderate quantities, are best able to support the influence of unwholesome climates, and the sudden alterations of the atmosphere. The Arabian prophet has also had encomiums for his prohibition of strong liquors, upon the supposition that excessive inebriety would throw the natives of warm climates into most ungovernable paroxysms of fury. The fact, however, is here exactly the reverse, for nothing can be quieter than a drunken Bengally. On these occasions he either retires with his wife or mistress to some private place, where both parties drink until satiated, or he swallows so much liquor at once as to deprive himself both of reason aud voluntary motion, and falls down prone on the earth a stupid block. It is seldom or never that, like the Centaurs and Lapithæ, he engages in that boisterous conviviality which generates feuds, broils, and quarrels.

The extracts of poppy and hemp are considered by native moralists more innocent than spirituous liquors, yet they are much more apt than distilled spirits to lead to the most beastly private intoxication. A Brahmin who intoxicates himself with these drugs is considered blameable, but it does not involve loss of caste. Many of the lower tribes use them whenever they can, but it is only the very lowest that will drink spirits openly. All women chew tobacco, but it is only the females of unclean tribes and prostitutes that will smoke. No man loses caste by smoking tobacco, and all practise it except a few pundits, who content themselves with snuffing, which is considered more dignified than smoking. Men seldom chew tobacco.

In general a Hindoo man of rank or high caste passes a great part of his time cooking: but the ceremonies which this operation involves being very troublesome, many of the natives kindle a fire but once a day, generally in the evening, when they make their principal meal. In the morning and at noon they eat some food that does not require cooking, such as parched rice, or rice parboiled and afterwards beaten flat and dried. Those who can afford the expense, mix it with molasses, and form cakes or balls; and some mix it with milk, sour or curdled, or with tamarinds. The poor either eat it without any addition, or moisten it with a little water, and, if such luxuries be attainable, with a little salt or some acid fruit. The preparations of milk are various, consisting of boiled butter (ghee), curdled sour milk, butter-milk, inspissated milk, and curds. The natives use only boiled milk, the taste as it comes from the cow being considered unpalatable. Neither is the butter ever used without having been boiled, which process converts it into an oil that keeps much better than butter. Even in the climate of Bengal, it undergoes little change for a month, and may be used after having been kept a year. The Bengal sweetmeats please neither the eye nor palate of Europeans, but the rich natives use large quantities, mostly fried in oil or butter.

Dogs, the humble ally of man, are little honoured in India, and no employ can be more disgraceful than the taking care of this faithful brute; yet the breed in Bengal is very numerous, and every village swarms with half-starved curs, which eat every sort of carcase and filth, and are not reckoned the property of any body. The natives rarely enter into any familiarity with them, nor are the children ever seen either caressing or tormenting them, as in Europe. They are in fact merely tolerated; one or two, according to the wealth of a family, being permitted to eat the scraps, in return for which they sleep in the yard, and bark when a stranger approaches. The bitches

are few in number, and commonly more starved than the dogs, being weaker, and the natives observing a strict neutrality in their quarrels. These creatures are so prolific that the number of dogs always exceeds that of the houses which give them shelter, and a large proportion have no resource but to roam about in misery like jackals. But, under all their hardships, they retain the affectionate nature of their kind: the least feeding attaches them, and when the pangs of hunger are deadened, the slightest notice delights them, and they soon discover who is the chief person of a party, though he neither caresses nor feeds them. Cats are not numerous, and are, like dogs, just tolerated, and live in a half-domestic half-wild state.

The Bengalese are in general, when young, a lively, handsome race of men. There is also a softness in their features, corresponding to the general mildness, or perhaps, pusillanimity of their character, and were it not for the uncharitable operation of caste, they would, comparatively, be a friendly, inoffensive race. They have a thorough contempt for all other nations and castes (which seems reciprocal), whom they consider impure and degraded, originally Hindoos, but in consequence of their sins and enormities, fallen from that high estate. The contrast between the bluntness of a European and the smooth easy polish of a Bengalese is very striking; the latter are naturally polite, and frequently exhibit a suavity and suppleness of manner that surprises a stranger. This observation, however, is only applicable so far as regards their conduct towards their superiors, for to inferiors, of whatever nation, they are usually insolent and contumelious. Their youths are lively, inquisitive, and of quick perception, and the common people noisy and loquacious. These are of a dark brown colour, middling stature, thin but well made, of an oval countenance, many with aquiline noses, and all with black eyes and hair.

The genuine natives of this province never were a martial race, or disposed to a military life, for which, indeed, their want of personal strength and constitution almost incapacitates them; the army is in consequence entirely recruited from north and western Hindostan. In 1822 three-fourths of the Bengal cavalry were Mahomedans, for, with the exception of the Maharattas, the Hindoos in general are not partial to the duties of a trooper. The reverse is the case in the Bengal infantry, three-fourths of which is composed of Hindoos, who are usually more docile and less dissipated than the Mahomedans. The standard below which no recruit is taken is five feet six inches, but a large proportion of the grenadiers are six feet and upwards.

The dress of the Hindoo men of rank has become nearly the same with that of the Mahomedans. The married Hindoo females use red-lead as an ornament; but instead of painting their cheeks like the European ladies, they rub it on their foreheads, fingers, and nails, and also paint round the soles of their feet with red. In compliment a woman is commended when she is discribed as walking like a duck or an elephant, which is also a sort of waddle. The teeth are beautiful when like the seed of the pomegranate (black and red); the nose, when like the beak of a parrot; the hands and feet like the water lily; the hair when black as a cloud; the chin when resembling the mangoe; and the lips when like the fruit of the talacucha. The hardships imposed on Hindoo widows of pure caste are so severe and degrading, that women of high spirit often prefer the funeral pile; while others submit with patience, and act as menial servants to the vain beauties who are decked in the ornaments of which they have been deprived; others, to escape these harsh regulations, renounce caste and seek refuge in a brothel. In 1823, the number of suttees, or widow burnings, within the Bengal presidency, was, Brahmins 234; Khetries 35; Vaisyas 14; Sudras 292; total 575. But the real number is probably much greater

as the returns are only given with accuracy about Calcutta, within the limits of the Calcutta court of circuit, where 340 out of the above sum total were perpetrated. The ages were, under twenty years of age 32; from twenty to forty years 208; from forty to sixty years 226; above sixty years of age 109.; total 575 widows.

To the ear of a European the native music sounds harsh and disagreeable, and to the professed musician is altogether insufferable. The performers, however, are numerous, and the variety of noises they are able to produce, considerable. The highest description consists of bands of instrumental music, which accompany the voices of girls who sing and dance. The latter is quite as bad as their music, being slow, lifeless, and without grace or meaning. The greatest art is to jingle time with some chains, or hollow rings, called goongooroos. which are tied round their ancles, During the Mussulmaun Mohurrem, some persons are employed to sing the praises of Fatima, the daughter of Mahomed, and of her unfortunate sons, Hassan and Hossein. But it is principally at marriages, and during religious processions and grand solemnities, that the full din of harmony is heard, proceeding from eight different kinds of drums, besides gongs, hautboys, buffaloe horns, and brass trumpets, performed by the lowest dregs of the people. From these formidable implements of sound each man extorts as much noise as he can, paying little or no attention to what his comrades are about. Sometimes the men amuse themselves singing hymns or love songs, accompanied by small drums; but it is considered as very disgraceful for a modest woman to sing, or play on any musical instrument. While rowing, the native boatmen endeavour to lessen their fatigue by singing the adventures of Krishna and Radha, and it is among them that any real melody is to be found, some being sweet and plaintive, and strongly resembling the national airs of Scotland and Ireland.

In Bengal the common washermen are almost all Hindoos of a low tribe; but nearly all the tailors are Mahomedans, the needle apparently having been totally unknown to the Hindoos before the Mahomedan invasion. A great proportion of the barbers are a pure tribe, and shave without soap. Rich men often retain barbers, who shave them, pick their ears, cut their nails, and knead their bodies, commonly called shampooing, an operation to which the natives are much attached. Ten days after a woman has been delivered, the nails both of her and her child must be cut. No native woman, except a prostitute, will allow their hair to be cut, such care of her person being deemed incompatible with modesty. Of the medical profession there are here three sects of native physicians; the Yunani (Ionians) among the Mahomedans; the Saka dwipi in Bahar; and the Vaidyas in Bengal.

Domestic slavery is very generally prevalent in Bengal, among both Hindoos and Mahomedans. More trusty than hired servants, slaves are almost exclusively employed in the interior of the house. Every opulent person, every one raised above the condition of the simplest mediocrity, is provided with household slaves, and from this class are chiefly taken the concubines of the Mahomedans and Hindoos; in regard to whom it is to be remembered, that concubinage is not among people of these religions an immoral state, but a relation which both law and custom recognize without reprehension, and its prevalence is only liable to the same objections as polygamy, with which it has a near, and almost necessary connection. In the lower districts under the Bengal presidency, the employment of slaves in the labours of husbandry is almost unknown. In the upper provinces beginning from Western Bahar, and Benares, the petty landlords, who are themselves cultivators, are aided in their husbandry by slaves, whom they very commonly employ as herds and ploughmen. Landlords of a higher class have in a few instances the pretensions of masters over a part of the tenants long settled on their estates, and re-

puted to be descended from persons who were the acknowledged slaves of their ancestors.

It would be difficult to form a computation of the number of slaves throughout the country, or the proportion born to the free population. In a general point of view it may be stated, that slaves are neither so few as to be of no consideration, or so numerous as to compose a notable proportion of the inhabitants. The number, which certainly is not relatively great, has been kept up, first by propagation; secondly, by the sale of free children into slavery; and thirdly, by importation from abroad, by sea or land, but this has been long prohibited. Slavery, however, in its severest sense, may be said to be unknown, the domestic slave being usually rather a favourite and confidential servant, than an abject drudge, and held superior to the hireling, both in the master's estimation and in his own. Opulent persons frequently emancipate but rarely sell their slaves; and the manumission of slaves being deemed an act of piety, it frequently takes place from religious motives, and slaves are expressly redeemed by purchase. The number of slaves continually diminishing by these processes, a demand constantly exists for the purchase of them, which is chiefly supplied by the sale of children by their parents during famines, or under circumstances of peculiar calamity. In such exigencies, parents have been known to sell their children for prices so very inconsiderable, and so little more than nominal, that they may frequently have credit for a better motive than that of momentarily relieving their own necessities; namely, the saving of the children's lives, by interesting in their preservation persons able to provide that nourishment, of which they are themselves destitute. There is no reason for believing that they are ever sold through avarice, or the want of natural affection; indeed the known character of the people in all their relations exempt them from the suspicion of such conduct. The pressure of want, therefore, alone stimulates the sale; and so long as no established fund, or regulated system for the relief of the indigent exists, it does not seem practicable to prevent the disposal of children by their parents, which is permitted by their own laws.

There are two classes of purchasers, however, by whom larger prices are given. The one comprehends various religious orders, the members of which purchase children to initiate them into their own class; but being restricted in their selection to the higher classes of Hindoos, they do not readily find persons willing to part with their children; they are in consequence obliged to bribe the cupidity of parents by a large pecuniary consideration, which their opulence, derived from the union of the commercial with the religious profession, enables them to hold out. The greatness of the reward has been supposed, in some instances, to lead to kidnapping; but this cannot occur frequently, as the purchaser requires always to have the parentage of the child clearly established. The other description of purchasers alluded to consists of the owners of sets of dancing women, who buy female children, and instruct them for public exhibition, and as they generally become courtezans, prohibitory laws might be enacted. Yet it would perhaps be going too far, to presume in all cases the intention of prostitution, and to interdict all instruction in the art of dancing, which forms a regular and necessary part of their religious festivals and celebrations.

The remaining source for the supply of slaves, until prohibited by law, was the importation by sea and by land. By the first-mentioned channel a few African slaves, never amounting to one hundred, were brought to Calcutta in the Arab ships. The importation by land was principally from the Nepaulese dominions, where the oppressive administration of the Gorkhas drove the wretched inhabitants to the sad resource of selling their children, or themselves, into slavery, when all other expedients of meeting the insatiable exactions of their rulers

were exhausted. At present the existence of slavery, as sanctioned by the Hindoo and Mahomedan law, is tolerated and maintained by the courts of judicature under the British government in India, nor does it appear that any legislative enactment is called for. Although the native laws have not provided against the barbarity of an inhuman master, the British local regulations have, by expressly annulling the exemption from kisas, or retaliation for murder, in 1798, since which period slaves have not been considered out of the protection of the law, either in the cases of murder or of barbarous usage.

Among the native population of the eastern districts of Bengal, the Mahomedans are almost equally numerous with the Hindoos, and in some particular parts, such as Ghoraghaut, a majority of the cultivators appear to have embraced the Arabian faith. In the central districts the Mahomedans do not compose a fourth of the inhabitants, and to the westward the disproportion is still greater. As an average of the whole, the Mahomedans may be computed at one-sixth of the total population of Bengal and Bahar. Of the four great castes, the aggregate of the Brahmin, and Khetri, may amount at the most to one-fifth of the Hindoo population; but, except families that have evidently migrated into Bengal, there are none that pretend to be genuine Khetris or Vaisyas, so that the original Bengalese may be considered as divided into Brahmins and Sudras.

In this province the highest Sudras are the Vaidyas, or medical tribe. The Kayasthas (pronounced kaist, hence the word caste), or writer tribe, follow next; then come nine tribes of tradesmen, who, although greatly inferior to the scribes, are considered pure Sudras, as a Brahmin will condescend to drink water offered by them, nor is he degraded by attending to their spiritual concerns. The nine trades are druggists, shell-workers, coppersmiths, cultivators of betel-leaf, weavers, makers of garlands, blacksmiths, potters, barbers. By some strange caprice, not only the bankers, but also the goldsmiths, are excluded from the pure castes of artificers; while barbers, pot-makers, copper and blacksmiths, obtained that much-envied dignity.

When Raja Ballal Sen arranged the castes of Bengal, it does not appear that he promulgated any code of written regulations, at least no book answering to this description is now extant. In this province commerce and agriculture are permitted to all classes; and, under the designation of servants to the three other tribes, Sudras are allowed to prosecute any manufacture. In practice little attention is paid to the limitation of castes, daily observation shewing Brahmins exercising the martial profession of a Khetri, and even the menial one of a Sudra. It may, however, be received as a general maxim, that the occupation appointed to each tribe is entitled merely to a preference, every profession, with a few exceptions, being open to every description of persons. Many tribes of Hindoos, and even some Brahmins, have no objection to the use of animal food, and at their entertainments it is generally introduced. By some, animal food is daily eaten, and the institutes of their religion require that animal food should be tasted even by Brahmins at solemn sacrifices, forbidding the use of it unless joined with the performance of such a sacrifice.

In this province, and throughout Hindostan generally, every caste, in order to preserve purity, form themselves into clubs or lodges, consisting of individuals of that caste residing within a small distance, and in Bengal termed collectively *dol*, which govern themselves by particular rules and customs, or bye-laws. At the head of each dol is a chief, whose office among the higher ranks is hereditary, and whose duty it is to punish all transgressions, either by excommunication or by fine; but his decision must be guided by the sentiments of the principal persons composing the society. In large towns

there are commonly two or three chiefs of dols, whose adherents in general quarrel and annoy each other as much as circumstances will permit. Each caste, when it is numerous in any place, has, besides, one or more distinct dols or societies for enforcing the observation of its rules. Each kind of Brahmin and each subdivision of Sudra has its own, and most of these are parcelled out into diverging branches, which dispute about purity and precedence. In the various tribes the chiefs of castes are called by different names, but the most common is paramaniks. The crimes usually punished by these combinations are the eating of forbidden things, or the eating in company with forbidden persons, and cohabiting with those who are impure or forbidden.

To describe the ceremonies of each, or of any one of the Bengal castes, would be impracticable within any reasonable limits, and if practicable, would only prove in how preposterously frivolous a manner time may be wasted. In the observance of these ceremonies, however, every Hindoo seems to place his chief gratification, and glories in an established reputation for their strict performance. Except the bodies of children, the dead of all castes are burned; but the funeral pile being expensive, many of the poor cannot afford to be reduced to ashes. As a substitute, a torch or whisp of straw is put into the mouth of the corpse, and afterwards, if near a large river, it is thrown into the water, or, if at a distance, buried; but the first is always preferred, and fills the Ganges and its branches with disgusting objects. The Bengalese Hindoos have in general a great terror of the dead, and will seldom venture to inhabit a house or hut where a person has died. This seems connected with their custom of exposing their sick to perish on the banks of rivers, which tends to aggravate the last pangs of nature, and sometimes not only accelerates death, but exhausts that strength which might possibly have enabled nature to overcome the disease. The custom also furnishes an opportunity of practising other horrid crimes, and it has probably been to guard against the possibility of such events that Hindoo legislators have imposed such severe hardships on widows.

Of the existence of Bengal as a separate kingdom, with the limits assigned to it at present, there is no other evidence than its distinct language and peculiar written character. At the time of the war of the Mahabharat, it formed part of the empire of Magadha, or Bahar, from which, however, it was dismembered before the Mahomedan invasion; but it is rarely in Hindoo books of any kind termed Bangala; Gour and Banga Desa being the usual distinctive appellations. Traditions still current in Bengal, make Bollal Sen, the immediate successor of Adisur, a person of the Vaidya, or medical tribe, who procured the government of the province, but subject to the monarch of the north-west. He is said to have resided partly at Gour, but chiefly at Bikrampoor, eight miles south-east from Dacca.

Adisur's wife had a son named Bollal Sen, begotten by the river Brahmaputra, under the form of a Brahmin. This offspring of the flood succeeded Adisur, and regulated the different castes as they now exist in Bengal, and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that the medical tribe, being that of the prince, is placed next in rank to the Brahmins. Indeed, of the five dynasties that are said to have ruled Bengal prior to the Mahomedan invasion, the four last are said to have been Kaists, and on the first Khetri.

Bollal Sen was succeeded by Lakhyaman Sen, who according to tradition had a son named Madhava Sen, who had a son named Su Sen, usually considered by the Hindoos as the last of their kings; but according to the Ayeen Acberry, Lakhyaman Sen was the last. In A.D. 1203, during the reign of Cuttub ud Deen on the Delhi throne, Ma-

homed Bukhtyar Khillijee was despatched with an army by that sovereign to invade Bengal, and marched with such rapidity that he surprised and took the capital. On the approach of the Mahomedans, Raja Lakhyaman, who resided at Nuddea, made his escape in a boat and fled to Juggernauth, where, according to Mahomedan authorities, he died; but the traditions of the country state that the Raja, dreading the destruction of Brahmins and sacred animals, which a protracted existence might occasion, by a power holy men are supposed to possess, deserted his visible body. It is possible that the Raja only retired to his remote capital, Bikrampoor, near Dacca, where there still resides a family possessing considerable estates, who pretend to be his descendants. We also find that Soonergong, in the vicinity of Bikrampoor, continued to be a place of refuge to the Gour malcontents, and was not finally subjugated until long after the overthrow of Raja Lakhyaman.

The kingdom being in this dastardly manner abandoned by its sovereign, fell an easy prey to the Mahomedan general, who having destroyed Nuddea proceeded to Gour, where he established his capital, and reared his mosques on the ruins of Hindoo temples. According to Mahomedan authorities, the conquest of this large province only occupied one year; but it would appear that after the capture of Gour, the Mahomedans were unable to extend their dominion over the whole Hindoo kingdom of Bengal, not only towards the north and east, but even towards the west; nor did they acquire possession of the whole, constituted as it is at present, until a late period of the Mogul government.

From this era Bengal was ruled by governors delegated from Delhi, until A.D. 1340, when Fakher ud Deen, having assassinated his master, revolted, and erected the independent kingdom of Bengal. After a short reign he was defeated and put to death, and was succeeded by

A.D.

1343. Ilyas Khan.

1358. Secunder Shah, killed in an engagement with his son.

1367. Gyas ud Deen. He eradicated the eyes of his brothers.

1373. Sultan Assulateen.

1383. Shums ud Deen; defeated and killed in battle by

1385. Raja Cansa, who ascended the throne, and was succeeded by his son,

1392. Cheetmul Jellal ud Deen, who became a convert to the Mahomedan religion.

1409. Ahmed Khan, who sent an embassy to Shahrokh, the son of Timour.

1426. Nassir Shah; succeeded by his son,

1457. Barbek Shah. This prince introduced mercenary guards, and troops composed of negro and Abyssinian slaves.

1474. Yuseph Shah, son of the last monarch, succeeded by his uncle,

1482. Futteh Shah, who was murdered by his eunuchs and Abyssinian slaves; on which event one of the eunuchs seized the crown and assumed the name of

1491. Shah Zadeh; but after a reign of eight months he was assassinated, and the vacant throne taken possession of by

1491. Feroze Shah Hubshy, an Abyssinian slave; succeeded by his son,

1494. Mahmood Shah. This prince was murdered by his slave, an Abyssinian; who ascended the throne under the name of

1495. Muzeffer Shah, who proved a cruel tyrant, and was slain in battle.

1499. Seid Hossein Shah. This prince expelled the Abyssinian troops, who retired to the Deccan and Guzerat, where they afterwards became conspicuous under the appellation of Siddhees. He afterwards invaded Camroop and Assam, but was repulsed with disgrace. Upon the whole, however, he may be considered the most powerful

A.D.

and tolerant of the Bengal kings. He was succeeded by his son,

1520. Nusserit Shah, who was assassinated by his eunuchs, and his son, Feroze Shah, placed on the throne; but after a reign of three months he was assassinated by his uncle,

1533. Mahmood Shah; subsequently expelled by Shere Shah, the Afghan, and with him, in 1538, ended the series of independent Mahomedan monarchs of Bengal. Some Portuguese ships had entered the Ganges as early as A.D. 1517, and in 1536 a squadron of nine ships was sent to the assistance of Mahmood Shah; but these succours arrived too late, and Bengal once more became an appendage to the throne of Delhi. The nature of the government of the independent kings is little known, but they appear to have enjoyed but little security for their persons, and were in general furious bigots, greatly under the influence of Mussulmaun saints. Shere Shah and his successors occupied Bengal until 1576, when it was conquered by the armies of the Emperor Acber, and in 1580 formed into a soubah, by Raja Tooder Mull.

The Governors of Bengal under the Mogul dynasty, were

1576. Khan Jehan.
1579. Muzuffer Khan.
1580. Raja Tooder Mull.
1582. Khan Azim.
1584. Shahbaz Khan.
1589. Raja Maun Singh.
1606. Cuttub ud Deen Kokultash.
1607. Jehangir Cooly.
1608. Sheikh Islam Khan.
1613. Cossim Khan.
1618. Ibrahim Khan.
1622. Shah Jehan.
1625. Khanezad Khan.
1626. Mokurrem Khan.
1627. Fedai Khan.
1628. Cossim Khan Jobung.
1632. Azim Khan. During the government of this viceroy, A.D.

A.D.

1634, the English obtained permission to trade with their ships to Bengal, in consequence of a firmaun from the emperor Shah Jehan, but were restricted to the port of Pipley, in Orissa, where they established their factory.

1639. Sultan Shujah, the second son of Shah Jehan, and brother of Aurungzebe. In 1642 Mr. Day, the agent who had so successfully established the settlement at Madras, proceeded on a voyage of experiment to Balasore; from whence he sent the first regular despatch received by the Court of Directors from Bengal, recommending a factory at Balasore. In 1656, owing to the extortion and oppression which the Company experienced, their factories were withdrawn from Bengal.

1660. Meer Jumla.

1664. Shaista Khan. During the government of this viceroy, the French and Danes established themselves in Bengal. He expelled the Mughs of Arracan from the island of Sundeep, and his administration was in other respects able and prosperous, although described by the East-India Company's agents of that period in the blackest colours.

1677. Fedai Khan.

1678. Shaista Khan was re-appointpointed. This year Mr. Job Charnock was restored to the situation of chief at Cossimbazar; and in 1681 Bengal was constituted a distinct agency from that of Fort St. George or Madras. On the 20th December 1686, in consequence of a rupture with the foujdar, or native military commander at Hooghly, the agent and council returned from Hooghly to Chuttanuttee or Calcutta, considering the latter as the safest station.

1689. Ibrahim Khan. In 1693 Mr. Job Charnock died, and was succeeded by Mr. Eyre; the seat of

A.D.

the Company's trade continuing at Chuttanuttee. In 1693 Sir John Goldesborough was sent out as general superintendent and commissary of all the Company's possessions; but he died in Bengal in 1694, having confirmed Mr. Eyre as chief. In 1696, during the rebellion of Soobha Singh, the Dutch at Chinsura, the French at Chandernagore, and the English at Chuttanuttee, requested permission to put their factories in a state of defence, and the viceroy having in general terms assented, they proceeded with great diligence to raise walls, bastions, and regular fortifications; the first permitted to foreigners by the Moguls within their dominions.

1697. Azim Ushaun, the grandson of Aurengzebe. In 1700 this prince, in consideration of a valuable present, permitted the agents of the East-India Company to purchase their townships, with the lands attached, adjacent to their fortified factory, *viz.* Chuttanuttee, Govindpoor, and Calcutta, Mr. Eyre, the chief, in consequence of instructions from home, having strengthened the works of the fort, it was named Fort William, in compliment to the king.

1704. Moorshed Cooly, or Jaffier Khan. This nabob in 1704 transferred the seat of government from Dacca to Moorshedabad, as being more central. The annual surplus revenue during his administration, which comprehended also Cuttack, amounted from 130 to 150 lacks of rupees (£1,500,000), and was regularly transmitted to Delhi every February, accompanied by valuable presents. In 1706 the whole stock of the United East-India Company had been removed to Calcutta, where the garrison consisted of 129 soldiers, of whom sixty-six were Europeans, exclusive of the gunner and his crew.

A.D.

1725. Shujah-ud-Deen, son in law of the late governor, who was succeeded by his son,

1732. Serferaz Khan; who was dethroned and killed in battle by

1740. Aliverdi Khan. It does not appear that this nabob ever remitted any part of the revenue to Delhi. After the invasion of Hindostan by Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul, and the death of the Emperor Mahomed Shah in the following year, the Mogul empire may be considered as annihilated beyond the immediate vicinity of Delhi.

1756. Seraje-ud-Dowlah, grandson to the late nabob, in April this year took undisputed possession of Bengal, Bahar, and a portion of Orissa; but it does not appear that he ever applied for, or received investiture from Delhi. On the 20th June he captured Calcutta, and shut up the prisoners, 146 in number, in a room twenty feet square, where they all perished except twenty-three. On the 1st January 1757, Calcutta was retaken by Admiral Watson and Col. Clive; on the 20th June the nabob was defeated at Plassey, and early in next July was assassinated by order of Meerun, the son of his successor, in the twentieth year of his age, and fifteenth month of of his reign. On learning, in 1757, this important conquest, the Court of Directors established a sort of rotatory government, by the enactments of which, four of their civil servants were appointed directors in Calcutta, to succeed each other every three months, from which favoured list of periodical rulers the name of Clive was excluded; but this nondescript constitution, as may be supposed, was of very transient duration. For the subsequent native princes of Bengal, see the article MOORSHEDABAD,

as from this era may be dated the commencement of the British government of this province, although the dewanny, or authority to collect the revenue, was not obtained from the Delhi sovereign until 1765.

On taking a retrospect of the preceding century, it appears that from the establishment of Aurengzebe on the imperial throne until the invasion of Nadir Shah, a period of eighty years, Bengal enjoyed profound peace without, and experienced only a few transient commotions internally. Under the government of the two last legitimate viceroys, Jaffier Khan and Shujah Khan, who ruled in succession nearly forty years, the state of the country was eminently flourishing, and the taxes little felt, although the annual tribute remitted to Delhi was usually a crore (ten millions) of rupees; the zemindars paying their land-tax directly into the royal treasury, without the intervention of local collectors on the part of the sovereign. Even after the usurpation of Aliverdi Khan, the zemindars were so opulent, as at one time to make him a donation of a crore of rupees, and another of fifty lacks, towards defraying the extra expenses incurred in repelling the incursions of the Maharattas. Bengal had then few political relations to maintain, and was never exposed to invasion at any time except from the west; the military establishment was consequently inconsiderable, and the general arrangement of the civil administration remarkable for economy, simplicity, and despatch.

In the first period of British administration, from 1757 to 1765, the provinces, with the exception of a few districts ceded to the Company, were continued under the government of the nabobs, to whom the distribution of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue, and the general powers of internal superintendence, were delegated; the British reserving the direction of foreign policy, a controlling military influence, and more considerable commercial advantages than had ever been conceded by the grants of emperors, or the prior usages of the country. In 1765 the dewanny was obtained by Lord Clive from the Emperor Shah Allum, under the condition of paying him twenty-six lacks of rupees annually, besides securing him a considerable tract of territory in Upper Hindostan, both which he forfeited in 1771 by putting himself voluntarily into the power of the Maharattas. This important and most valuable acquisition, observes a native historian (Seid Gholaum Hossein), was settled without hesitation or argument, as easily as the purchase of an ass or any other animal, without envoys or reference, either to the King of England or to the Company.

Lord Clive returned to England in 1767, and was succeeded in the government by Mr. Verelst; and on his departure, in December 1769, by Mr. Cartier. The crops of 1768 and 1769 proved scanty, and throughout the month of October 1769 scarcely a drop of rain fell. The almost total failure of a third crop, after the deficiency of two preceding ones, filled the miserable inhabitants with consternation and dismay. Some reliance was still placed on the crops of inferior grain, usually reaped between February and April: but the refreshing showers that commonly fall between these months also failed, no rain descending until late in the latter month. The heat in consequence became insupportable, and every sort of herb was in a great degree dried to a powder. The result was universal despondence, and a too well-founded apprehension of impending destruction, for the same calamity extended to Upper Hindostan, and no adjacent country was capable of furnishing an adequate supply.

The British administration and the native officers took the alarm at an early period, and adopted such precautionary measures as were in their power. In September 1769 the British and all their dependents were absolutely prohibited from trading in grain, and strict injunctions were,

with doubtful policy, promulgated against the hoarding of grain, or dealing in it clandestinely; and as a measure of necessity, 60,000 maunds were stored for the subsistence of the army. For these exertions the natives were principally indebted to Mr. Becher, of the civil service, who yet on his return to England found himself traduced as the author of the famine, and the purchase of a stock of rice for the army may have assisted to suggest the notion of a monopoly.

In the northern districts of Bengal the famine raged so early as November 1769, and before the end of April had spread universal desolation. Rice rose gradually to four, and at length ten times its usual cost, and even at these prices was to a vast multitude unattainable. Thousands crawled forth to the fields, and endeavoured, by knawing the bark and chewing the bitter and astringent leaves of trees, to prolong their miserable existence. In the country the highways and fields were strewed with the dying and the dead; in towns the streets and passages were choked up with them. Vast numbers flocked to Moorshedabad, the capital, and supplies for that quarter were eagerly sought. Subscriptions were liberally made, and the Company, the Nabob, the ministers, and European and native individuals, largely contributed to the feeding of the poor. In Moorshedabad alone 7,000 were daily fed for several months, and the same practice was adopted in other places; but the good effect of these charitable endeavours was scarcely perceptible amidst the general mortality. In and around the capital, it became necessary to keep a set of persons constantly occupied in removing the dead, who were placed on rafts by hundreds and floated down the river. At length, the persons employed in this sad vocation fell victims to the noxious effluvia, and for a time, dogs, vultures, and jackals were the only scavengers. The air became offensive, and resounded with the frantic cries of all ages and sexes in the agonies of death. In many places entire families, in others whole villages, became extinct; forbidden and abhorrent food was resorted to; the child fed on its dead parent, and the mother on her child. A gloomy calm at length succeeded, and it was found that death had ended the miseries of so great a proportion of the cultivators, that when the new crop reached maturity, in many parts no proprietor remained to claim it. The number cut off during this period of horror has been variously estimated, but probably exceeded three millions; and although the desolation was of such uncontrollable magnitude as to be evidently beyond the power of man either to prevent or inflict, yet in England it was ascribed to the very persons who endeavoured to alleviate its ravages, and even to others who were not in the country when it commenced. Nor did the total impossibility of establishing a monopoly of grain, prevent a general belief in the western world, that the inhuman expedient had been resorted to by the servants of the East-India Company. The calumny originated in the French settlement of Chandernagore, and from thence was transmitted to Paris, London, and Europe generally, where it has been registered as truth in the page of history, has been made the subject of religious lamentation, has been immortalized in verse, and, such is the power of perverse credulity, is still considered as an indelible stain on the British character; yet is wholly a phantom, and never had the slightest foundation in fact.

In 1772 Mr. Hastings was appointed governor, and next year, by the interference of the British legislature, a new constitution was given to Bengal, and a majority of the members that were to administer it sent from England, the others being selected from the existing council. About the same period, 1772, English supervisors were sent into the districts to superintend the collection of the revenue, by which measure the British government stood forward as dewan, an office hitherto executed by native functionaries, residing at

Moorshedabad, the old seat of government, and of the public exchequer. These native ministers, with the officers they employed in the provinces, were now laid aside, and the Company, by the aid of their own European servants, undertook the collection of the revenue. Along with their former controlling power, the governor and council joined the actual cognizance and executive management, which until then had remained vested in the native ministers. The ostensible seat of government and of the exchequer was removed to Calcutta, the province subdivided into collectorships, and a European civil servant stationed in each district as a revenue collector.

This alteration transferred to the English the civil administration of justice, and every interposing medium between them and their Indian subjects being displaced, they came to transact business immediately with each other. The direct authority of the British now pervaded the interior, and the native or country government was abrogated, both in form and fact, with the exception of the nabob's remaining function, that of chief criminal magistrate. The public functionaries then (1772) commenced their operations, and apparently with a very strong desire to alleviate the sufferings of the people: but, owing to the novelty of the task, committed many errors, both in finance and the administration of justice, which rather tended to aggravate them. On this occasion sufficient attention was not paid to the essential distinction between the landholder, having an interest in the soil, and the revenue servant, whose object was of course, not the permanent welfare of the district under his management, but the temporary realization of the greatest possible revenue.

Mr. Hastings continued in the government until 1785, when he returned to Europe, and was succeeded by Sir John Macpherson. From the period of the revolution in 1757, the British in Bengal entered into no external offensive alliances, pursuing the system recommended by Lord Clive, which was, to avoid schemes of conquest and political intrigue, to improve the domestic condition of the provinces, and to procure respect by moderation and good faith. A deviation from this principle, however, began in 1774, having for object the pecuniary advantage of the Company; and in 1778 a much wider deviation took place, by the carrying on of offensive war, with a view to the acquisition of territory in the west of India. By these measures an enormous debt was incurred, and the public resources greatly exhausted; to which evils succeeded the attack of Hyder Ali on the Carnatic, and a defensive war against him and his allies, the French, the support of which fell wholly on Bengal. On this emergency the legislature again interfered, and regulations were enacted to correct the evils then prevalent, and also to invigorate the authority of the home administration of Indian affairs.

Lord Cornwallis reached Bengal in September 1786, and during his government the last period took place of the British territorial administration of Bengal, the land revenue having been permanently fixed, and the same enjoyment of rights secured to all the inferior occupants of the soil. Very essential reforms were also made in the administration of justice. Up to this date the high station of supreme criminal judge remained vested in the nabob, represented by some Mahomedan delegate, who filled the inferior courts by sale with his own mean retainers, who, to reimburse themselves, exercised every extortion and oppression.

Under this destructive system the country groaned, and with its existence the British government was justly reproached. But, reluctant to touch the last remaining prerogative of the nabob, it long temporized, until the evil became insupportable, when an arrangement took place, by the conditions of which the nabob appointed the Governor-general in council his delegate in the office of supreme

criminal judge. Lord Cornwallis and the other members of that body then took upon themselves the duties of the office, removed the chief criminal court from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, invested the collectors of districts with magisterial powers, and established courts of circuit for the principal divisions of the country. This great department was in fact wholly renovated, and filled with men of principle and ability, having adequate salaries, and subject to the strongest responsibilities. Even Europeans were placed under the cognizance of these provincial laws, and the authority of the collector subsequently restricted to the mere receipt and disbursement of the revenue, (since modified), the distribution of justice being transferred to a distinct class of magistrates. Henceforward the law became the arbiter in all matters of property between the government and its subjects. For the administration of justice, the Hindoo and Mahomedan codes were in general made the standard for the respective sectaries of these religions, modified in some instances where they were barbarous and cruel, and improved in others having a relation to political economy; but continuing in force, so far as regards religious tenets, marriage, caste, inheritance, and some other points. During this important period the arrangement of the Company's army was new modelled, and its constitution greatly improved.

The government of the Marquis Cornwallis lasted until August 1793, when he was succeeded by Sir John Shore, afterwards Lord Teignmouth; who pursued the beneficial measures of his predecessor, which were subsequently nearly completed by the Marquis Wellesley. This nobleman reached India the 26th April 1788, and left Madras for England the 20th August 1805.

The Marquis Cornwallis arrived at Calcutta on his second mission in July 1805, and died at Ghazipoor, near Benares, the 5th of next October. He was succeeded by Sir George H. Barlow, who held the reins of government until the arrival of Lord Minto in July 1807. Lord Minto returned to Europe in 1813, and was succeeded by the Earl of Moira, afterwards Marquis of Hastings, who reached India in the October of that year. This nobleman held the reins of government until the 9th January 1823, when he resigned, and was succeeded provisionally by Mr. Adam, until the arrival of Lord Amherst, which took place on the 4th of August 1823.—(*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Sir H. Strachey, C. Grant, Fullarton, Ward, Wilson, Stewart, Crisp, J. D. Paterson, Harington, Mill, R. Grant, East, Gholaum Hossein, &c.*)

Bengal, Bay of.—This portion of the Indian ocean has the figure of an equilateral triangle, very much resembling in shape, though larger in size, that formed by the continent of the Deccan and Southern India, and usually, but improperly, denominated the peninsula. On the west, one limb extends from Bengal to Ceylon; on the east from Bengal to Junk Ceylon; and the third across the bay from Ceylon to Junk Ceylon. Each limb may be estimated at 1,120 miles in length, and the whole is comprehended within the latitudes of 8° and 20° N. At the bottom of the bay the difference of longitude between the towns of Balasore and Chittagong on the opposite sides is 4° 53′.

The eastern coast of the bay is strewed over with numerous islands and chains of islands, varying in dimensions, elevation, and other circumstances, while on the western coast not one is to be found from Ceylon to Bengal. Neither does the west coast possess one good harbour for large ships, whereas the opposite coast affords abundance, such as Arracan, Cheduba, Negrais, Syriam, Martaban, Tavoy, King's Island, Junk Ceylon, Pulo Lada, and the Mergui Archipelago. In other respects also the two shores differ considerably; Coromandel, thirty miles from the

beach, has no soundings; the east coast has soundings two degrees off. Coromandel is comparatively a clear country; the east coast of the bay is covered with wood. Coromandel is often parched with heat, from the winds blowing over barren sands; the east coast is always cool. On the west coast the mouths of the rivers are barred with sand; on the east coast they are deep and muddy. Coromandel has often destructive gales; the east coast has seldom any.

The numerous rivers that flow into the bay bring down such vast quantities of slime, mud, and sand, that the sea appears turbid at a great distance from the shore. In these parts the tides and currents run with great velocity; and when counter currents meet a rippling is formed, extending several miles in a straight line, attended with a noise resembling breakers.

The winds in the bay of Bengal are said to blow six months from the north-east, and the other six from the south-west; this is not precisely the case, but it is sufficiently accurate for general purposes. It is remarkable that in many parts of India, during March and April, there are on shore strong winds blowing directly from the sea, while in the offing it is a perfect calm; thus at Bengal there are in that season very strong southerly winds, while in the bay calms prevail until May and June. On the coast of Malabar the south-west monsoon does not commence blowing with strength until the beginning of the rainy season; but on shore there are strong westerly winds from about the vernal equinox.—(*Forrest, Johnson, Rennel, F. Buchanan, Finlayson, &c.*)

Bengermow.—A considerable town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, situated on an elevated spot of ground, forty-four miles W. from Lucknow; lat. 26° 54′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Bensrode.—A town in the province of Malwa, fifty-one miles E.N.E. from Oojein; lat. 23° 25′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E.

Bentotte.—A village on the west coast of Ceylon, much celebrated for the excellence of its oysters; lat. 6° 24′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E., thirty-eight miles S.S.E. from Columbo.

BERAR.

A large province of the Deccan, situated between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude, the limits of which do not appear to have ever been correctly defined. To the north it is bounded by Candeish and Malwa; on the south by Aurungabad and Beeder; to the east it has the extensive province of Gundwana; and on the west Candeish and Aurungabad. In 1582 it was described by Abul Fazel, in the Institutes of Acber, as follows: "The ancient names of this soubah are Durdatutt, Roodavoodyatt, and Fitkener. It is situated in the second climate; the length from Puttaleh to Beeragurh is 200 coss, and the breadth from Bunder to Hindia measures 180 coss. On the east it joins to Beeragurh; on the north is Settarah; on the south Hindia; and on the west Telingana. It is divided into the following districts, *viz.* 1. Kaweel; 2. Poonar; 3. Kehrleh; 4. Nernalah; 5. Kullem; 6. Bassum; 7. Mahore; 8. Manickdurg; 9. Patna; 10. Telinganeh; 11. Ramgur; 12. Bheker; 13. Puffyaleh."

It will be perceived that the province of Berar, as described by Abul Fazel, differs materially from the modern acceptation of the name; the former including (but improperly) the whole region from Dowlatabad to Orissa, the eastern portion of which was certainly not subdued, and probably but very indistinctly known to the Emperor Acber or his functionaries. Nagpoor has generally been considered the capital, and its sovereign named the Berar Raja; but this is a mistake, as the city of Nagpoor stands in Gundwana, the proper capital of Berar being Ellichpoor. The soubah of Berar was formed while Acber reigned, from conquests made south of the Nerbudda; but the

eastern quarter of the Deccan, as assigned by Abul Fazel, was never thoroughly subdued, or even explored, by any Mahomedan ruler. The principal geographical subdivisions of note at present are,

1. Beytalbarry.
2. Nernallah.
3. Gawelghur.
4. Maihker.
5. Waussim.
6. Mahore.
7. Kullum.

The modern province is centrally situated, being nearly at an equal distance from the Bay of Bengal and the western coast of India. Berar Proper is an elevated valley, ascended by a chain of ghauts or mountain passes, extending from Adjuntee to the Wurdu river, which were surveyed in 1816 by engineer officers from Madras. The section of this chain, extending from Adjuntee to Lucknawanee, a distance of fifty-seven miles, having been the routes of ingress and egress of the Pindarries, was subject to stricter investigation than the rest; a description, therefore, of this portion will furnish a tolerable idea of the whole.

The general circumstances of the range are entirely the same, and their aspect nearly so, presenting merely a succession of high grounds, with here and there a small peak visible above the rest; the deep breaks and ravines, which lead in some places to a gentle, and in others to an abrupt descent into the valley of Berar, being only perceived when nearly approached. Some of these ghauts are impassable for carriages, laden camels, or bullocks; some for horses, and some are mere hill paths. The surface of the hills in this section of the chain is covered with loose stones and low jungle, and but little cultivation is seen; neither is there any timber large enough for building, although enough may be found for stockades, or revetments for an earthen parapet, if wanted to barricade a pass. About Botalghaut some trees of larger size occur. The Badoolah ghaut is the easiest ascended, and is the one most frequented by natives and travellers. In 1816 a great proportion of the villages near the hills were found uninhabited; and the tract of country along their summits, from Buldaunah to Murr, was equally desolate, the soil being apparently unappropriated. A considerable proportion of the villages are subject to the Nizam; but others towards the north-west belonged to the Peshwa, and have of course devolved to the British government. In the vicinity of Soulut the range between Ajuntee and Lucknawaree attains its greatest elevation, and with the exception of a few projecting points, the face in general resembles a perpendicular wall. Owing to the extent of these chains, and their numerous openings, which permit horse to pass in almost every part, any plan of defence against predatory cavalry is impracticable.

Even before the desolating invasions of the Pindarries, the Nizam's portion of Berar between Jaulna and the Tuptee was thinly inhabited and little cultivated, although the soil is naturally rich, as is proved by the abundance of fine grass it spontaneously produces. The soil in this quarter is the black cotton, so generally prevalent through the Deccan and south of India. The grains most cultivated in Berar are wheat, Indian corn, Bengal gram, peas, and vetches; flax also is raised. These are all sown about the end of the rains in September and October, and are ripe in January. The Nagpoor wheat is reckoned the most productive and nutritious in India, and requires only three months to come to perfection. When distilled it yields an excellent spirit resembling whiskey, but not quite so good. The second crop, which is Indian corn, is sown after the violent rains of June and July, ripens in October, and with wheat forms the chief subsistence of the inhabitants.

The largest rivers of Berar are the Tuptee; two streams both named Poorna, one flowing east and the other west; the Wurda, the Pain Gunga. The towns of most note are, Ellichpoor, Mulcapoor, Baulapoor, Akoat, Akolah, Nernallah, Gawelghur, and Omrawutty. A great pro-

portion of the inhabitants are Hindoos, but from various causes the country has never attained any remarkable degree of prosperity; indeed for many years past its decline has been progressive, more especially of the portion transferred to the Nizam in 1804. Such commerce as exists, is merely that of itinerant inland carriers, so numerous all over the Deccan, and in one particular instance is promoted by a singular practice prevalent among the lowest tribes of Berar and Gundwana, who not unfrequently vow to perform suicide in gratitude for boons solicited from idols, and in their opinion obtained. In fulfilment of their promise the successful votary throws himself from a precipice named Cala Bhairava, situated in the mountains between the Tuptee and Nerbudda. The annual fair held near the spot early in spring, usually witnesses eight or ten victims to this superstition, and at the same time much business is transacted by merchants and others attracted to the spot by the expected immolations.

Among the states that arose on the ruins of the Bhamenee empire of the Deccan, A.D. 1510, one consisted of the southern portion of Berar, and was named the Ummad Shahy dynasty, from its founder Ummad ul Mulk; but it only lasted four generations, when it fell under the dominion of Ahmednugger, A.D. 1574, and under the Mogul sway towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century. When that great empire relaxed the strength of its grasp, the province was overrun by rapacious hordes of Maharattas, and was for some years almost equally divided between the Peshwa and the Raja of Nagpoor. The latter, having in an evil hour put himself forward as the Ally of Dowlul Row Sindia, his share was, in 1804, transferred to the Nizam, with whom great part of the modern province still remains, and suffers much misgovernment.

The whole of the Nizam's possessions north of the Godavery had for many years been infested by bands of freebooters, known by the names of Naiks and Bheels, who deprived the cultivators of their harvest, compelled merchants and travellers to hire large escorts, and by their cruelties and depredations kept the Berar province in a state of incessant commotion. The ranges of hills intersecting Berar had long been possessed by robbers, who either subsisted on direct plunder, or by levying contributions on the inhabitants and travellers, an exemption from rapine being purchased by stipulated payments in money. The cultivators secured their crops by giving a share to the freebooters, and travellers consented to a tax for permission to prosecute their journey in safety. In the course of time these duties became established and defined, and entitled the inhabitants to protection from all extraneous depredation. The Nizam's government, knowing from experience the difficulty of extirpating these marauders, whose dens were situated in the fastnesses of mountains inaccessible to the operations of regular troops, considered it good policy to acquiesce in a settlement which it had not power to prevent, and which, to a certain degree, protected the traders and cultivators. The ministers at Hyderabad in consequence not only sanctioned the engagements, but provided for the regular payment of the compulsory duties, gave lands to the Naiks, and occasionally employed them in the service of the state.

Owing to the famines of 1807 and 1808, many villages in Berar were deserted, and the Naiks and Bheels lost the contributions they had so long been accustomed to exact. To make up the deficiency they took advantage of the distracted state of the country, and extended their ravages, in which proceeding they were joined by many needy adventurers from all parts of the province, and by some troops from the disbanded armies of Sindia, Holkar, and the Nagpoor Raja. Their parties gradually became more formidable, and as the difficulty of subsistence increased with their numbers, their predatory

excursions became more extended, more frequent, and more destructive. Different bands occasionally quarrelled about the distribution of the booty when acquired, and many sanguinary engagements took place during the adjustment of their respective pretensions; but the result was, that large tracts of land were abandoned to wild beasts, and a great proportion of the villages deserted. The cultivators, finding no peace without, flocked eagerly to the walled towns, and even in their immediate vicinity the crops were not secure from the attacks of the Bheels, large bodies of whom ranged unrestrained throughout the country. Raja Mohiput Ram, the Nizam's viceroy in Berar, either from indolence, despair of success, or with the view of employing them for his own exigencies, not only took no measures to suppress them, but was suspected of affording them secret encouragement, and of sharing their plunder. Raja Govind Buksh, another of the Nizam's officers, often endeavoured to check their rapine; but the Bheels managed always to evade such bodies of troops as they could not resist. The service against them was of so fatiguing and dangerous a description, that the Nizam's officers either shunned it, or undertook the task with apathy and reluctance. Cavalry could not act in the strong and rugged country to which the Bheels retreated, and even infantry could not penetrate their more secluded haunts.

These difficulties, however, might have been overcome, had not a still greater remained, which was the encouragement given to the banditti by many officers in the Nizam's service, and more especially by the Nabob Soobhan Khan. This faithful dignitary of the Nizam's court not only concerted the plundering expeditions of the Naiks, and supplied them with provisions and ammunition, but actually employed some of the government troops to assist them, receiving the plunder into the fortresses where he commanded as an officer of government, and retaining a share for his own benefit, estimated in common years at five lacks of rupees. The Nizam's prime minister, Meer Allum, had often expressed his desire to liberate Berar from these oppressions, which had so absorbed the revenue that scarcely enough was left to pay the few troops stationed there. All efforts were found ineffectual so long as Soobhan Khan was permitted to retain his jaghires in the province, his conduct being so insolent and contumacious, as well as secretly favourable to the disorders he was employed to suppress.

In addition to these evils this miserable province suffered much from the Nizam's own troops, especially the cavalry, although ostensibly maintained for its defence at an enormous expense. These cavalry corps were of two descriptions: first, such as were paid directly by the local government of Berar from the reveuues of the province; secondly, those supported by different chieftains in consideration of military jaghires conferred on them. The first description, by far the most numerous, was composed, like all the irregular horse of India, of small independent squads, raised and commanded by different sirdars. On any emergency these squads were united into one large body, when the command was generally bestowed either on some favourite, or on some individual able to conciliate by bribery the good-will of those in power. Although this faulty organization was sufficient of itself to render such corps unserviceable, a still greater cause of their insufficiency arose from their mode of payment. Each jemadar of a squad hired his party to the chieftain, for a sum varying from forty-five to fifty-five rupees per horseman, for which the jemadar engaged to furnish a horse, rider, accoutrements, and ammunition. Every loss or casualty was borne by himself, so that it was not only his interest to avoid danger, but also to maintain his party at the smallest possible expense. To counteract this tendency a muster-master was appointed by the Nizam; but

this functionary was not unfrequently prevailed upon to connive at the imposition on the government, and was nearly as often imposed on himself. Hence many of these horses had no existence but on paper, and many others were never visible but on muster day. The second description of cavalry above alluded to was that of the jaghiredars, organized in the same manner as the first, and, with some honourable exceptions, equally inefficient. The muster-roll of the first description gave 7,150, and of the second 4,340; but the effective numbers never were ascertained; and in addition to these Salabut Khan, one of the jaghiredars, was bound to maintain 2,000 infantry. When Colonel Doveton repaired to Berar and took charge, he found that any endeavours to improve these corps, constituted as they were, would be unavailing, and that in point of fact they were as much dreaded as the Pindarries, by the peaceful inhabitants they were sent to protect.

The Nizam's regular infantry stationed in Berar were considered the most effective of his forces, and composed the contingent he was bound to furnish in the event of a joint war taking place. Those, however, serving under Raja Mohiput Ram could not be depended on, as they consisted of sepoys who had formed the corps of M. Raymond, and never could be brought to adopt the British discipline, but remained dressed in the French costume, practised the French exercise, and employed French words of command. The person who in reality commanded these troops, and possessed considerable influence over them, was a Spaniard named Clementi D'Avila, steadily attached to Mohiput Ram, and, as well as his troops, notoriously hostile to the British cause. Most of the other officers were low adventurers, ready to engage in any dispute; and the half-caste men were distinguished from the natives merely by wearing a hat.

Under these untoward circumstances, Meer Allum, the Nizam's prime minister in 1807, nominated Raja Govind Buksh (the brother of Raja Chundoo Loll) to supersede his enemy Raja Mohiput Ram in the civil government of Berar, and at the same time recommended that a proportion of the British subsidiary force should be stationed in that province. The good effects that had been anticipated from this measure by the minister, were very soon made manifest by a succession of events. Raja Mohiput Ram, on receiving notice of his supersession, attempted to collect troops under pretence of having been ordered with them to Hyderabad; but the leading jaghiredars and military chieftains disregarded his orders. Being thus frustrated in his martial projects, he entertained the design of escaping with his treasure; but subsequently relinquished it, probably on account of his family being at the capital, where he endeavoured by intrigues to obtain permission to join them; but Suggur was fixed on for the future place of his residence. The restless nature of his ambition, however, ere long drove him into open rebellion, when his troops, amounting to 6,000 men, were attacked by a Nizam's detachment, consisting of 3,000 cavalry and 1,300 infantry; when, owing to the dastardly conduct of the cavalry, the rebels proved victorious, killing and wounding nearly the whole of the infantry. Upon this disaster, a part of the British subsidiary force was marched against him, and in a very short campaign effectually subdued his troops, and compelled himself to surrender. After infinite difficulty, from the caprice and perverseness of the Nizam's character, which could only be surmounted by the direct interference of the British government, Soobhan Khan, the other disaffected nabob, was removed from Berar to the capital; and Clement D'Avila, from whom resistance had been expected, submitted in the most peaceable manner, merely requesting permission to proceed to Goa.—(*Captain Sydenham, Lieut. Bayley, Abul Fazel, Rennell, Heyne, Ferishta, Colebrooke, Leckie, &c.*)

Bereng.—A town in Cashmere, thirty-seven miles E. from the city of Cashmere, near to which is a long defile in a mountain, containing a reservoir of water seven ells square, considered by the Hindoos a place of great sanctity.

Berhampoor *(Barhampura)*.—A town in Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Bhagirathi, or Cossimbazar river, about six miles south from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 4′ N., lon. 89° 14′ E. A brigade of native and European troops are stationed here in commodious barracks, which form a noble square, separated from the river by a fine esplanade, with a hospital, bazar, and other buildings to the north.

Bernagur *(Virnagara)*.—A small town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, five miles north from the city; lat. 24° 16′ N., lon. 88° 13′ E.

Bernaver.—A town in the Delhi province, thirty-three miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 8′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E.

Berodeh.—A town in the province of Agra, twenty miles E. from Alvar; lat. 27° 44′ N., lon. 76° 50′ E.

Berud *(tribe)*.—See Padshahpoor.

Beroli.—A town in the province of Allahabad, fourteen miles north from Ditteah; lat. 25° 51′ N., lon. 78° 28′ E.

Berowni.—A small native fortification in the province of Allahabad, five miles north from Ditteah; lat. 25° 51′, lon. 78° 21′ E.

Besuki *(Vasuki)*.—A town and small district in Java, situated near the eastern extremity of the island. It is but indifferently supplied with water, and has very little land fit for cultivation that is not already under cultivation; but it is better peopled in proportion than the adjacent districts. The town of Besuki stands in lat. 7° 40′ S., lon. 113° 35′ W., 633 miles E. from Batavia.—*(Raffles, &c.)*

Bess River.—This river issues from the great tank of Bhopaul, in the province of Malwa, and proceeding in a north-easterly direction, joins the Betwah or Betwuntah, one mile north of Bhilsa. At Islamghur it is joined by the Patna, a small river that flows from the lesser tank of Bhopaul.

Bessely Ghaut *(Bisavali Ghat)*.—A pass through the western range of mountains leading from Mysore to the maritime province of Canara.

Betaisor.—A town and place of pilgrimage in the Agra province, situated on the Jumna, thirty-five miles S.E. from Agra; lat. 26° 57′, lon. 78° 24′ E. Near to this place are the remains of Sarapura, an ancient Hindoo city.—*(Tod, &c.)*

Bettiah *(Bhattia, named also Chumparun)*.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, ninety miles N.N.W. from Patna; lat. 26° 47′ N., lon. 84° 40′ E.

Bettooriah *(Bhitoria)*.—A subdivision of the great zemindarry of Rajeshahy, in the province of Bengal. A.D. 1396, Raja Cansa, the Hindoo zemindar of this tract, rebelled against Shums ud Deen, the Mahomedan sovereign of Bengal, who was defeated and slain. On this event Raja Cansa seated himself on the vacant throne, which, after a reign of seven years, he transmitted to his son Cheetmul; who turning Mahomedan, reigned under the more sonorous appellation of Sultan Jellal ud Deen.

Betwa *(Vetava)*, or Betwuntee River.—This river rises in the province of Gundwana, three miles south-west of the Shahpoor ghaut, enters Malwa about sixteen miles east of Bhopaul, and afterwards receives the accession of many streams until it reaches Erich, where it winds eastward through a broken rocky ridge, which causes a rapid, and afterwards joins the Jumna below Calpee, having completed a serpentine course of

about 340 miles in a north-easterly direction. Although during the rains a considerable body of water flows through its channel, it does not appear to be navigable at any time of the year.

BEYAH *(Vipasa)* RIVER *(the Hyphasis)*.—This is the fourth river of the Punjab of Lahore, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. The Beas (*vyas*) Gunga and the Ban (*vana*) Gunga are said to form the Beyah, the first passing Kote Kaungrah to the south, and the latter to the northward, both in a westerly direction, joining at Hurreepoor, one march below the fort, one passing on each side and uniting below so as to form an island. Abul Fazel writes that the source of the Beyah, named Abyekoond, is in the mountains of Keloo, pergunnah of Sultanpoor.

After issuing from the hills this river flows in a south-westerly direction, and at Bhirowal ghaut in 1809, when the floods were at the highest, measured 740 yards across, the stream passing with a rapid current, and a high bank on the right side. In the cold season it is fordable here at most places, but in its bed are many quicksands, and when the waters are low many islands and sandbanks are left exposed. The Beyah joins the Sutuleje thirty-five miles below Bhirowal, near Hurraka, and not far from Ferozepoor; after which conjunction the united streams are first named Beas, and further on Gurrah, by which appellation it is also known at Gordecan ghaut, near Pakputtun, 160 miles above Bahawulpoor, and 100 S.S.W. from Lahore. The Beyah and Sutuleje, at their confluence, are nearly the same size, but the last is rather the largest. Their course also is nearly the same from the snowy ridge, 150 miles, to their junction, and 260 more to where they unite with the aggregated waters of the Jhylum, Chinaub, and Ravey. The total length of its course, including windings, may be estimated at 590 miles. In 1805 Lord Lake pursued Jeswunt Row Holkar to the banks of this river, where he sued for peace and concluded a treaty. — (*Macartney, Rennel, &c.*)

BEYKANEER.—See BICANERE.

BEYLAH.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated towards the northern extremity, fifty-eight miles N.E. from Anjar; lat. 23° 41′ N., lon. 70° 50′ E. The site of Beylah is commanding, as a military post, to check the plunderers from the desert.

BEYHAR *(Vihar)*.—A town in Bengal, the modern residence of the Cooch Bahar rajas, thirty-two miles N.E. from Rungpoor; lat. 26° 18′ N., lon. 89° 22′ E.

BEYRUSIA.—A town in the province of Malwa, pergunnah of Oojein, which in 1820 had a small stone ghurry, and contained 300 houses.

BEYTULBARRY.—A small district in the Berar province, situated south of the Ajuntee ghaut, between the twentieth and twenty-first degrees of north latitude, respecting which scarcely any thing is known. Except Ajuntee, it does not appear to contain any place of note.

BEZOARA *(Bijora)*.—A town in the Northern Circars, forty-one miles N.W. from Masulipatam; lat. 16° 30′ N., lon. 80° 43′ E. The stream of the Krishna is here confined between two bold projecting mountains, which form a strait 1,100 yards broad. Lower down the river expands to the width of a mile, but is still bounded on all sides by fine mountain scenery. The great thoroughfare between the Circars and the Carnatic is by the ferry of Bezoara, which is provided with some large deep boats, besides abundance of catamarans, formed by two palmyra trunks lashed together and platformed with boards.

The town, or rather village of Bezoara, is peopled with Brahmins and beggars. At one extremity is a well-built Mahomedan serai and mosque, in the style of Upper Hindostan,

and apparently a modern erection. The rocks above are also embellished with picturesque Hindoo temples, and several cave temples have been formed in the body of the mountain, and another in a conical hill on the opposite side of the Krishna. They are, however, very inferior to the meanest of the Hindoo excavations in the west of India. The bungalow maintained here for the accommodation of travellers commands a fine prospect over the surrounding country.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BHADRINATH *(Vadarinatha)*.—A town and temple situated on the west side of the Alacananda river, in the centre of a valley about four miles long, and one where broadest; lat. 30° 43′ N., lon. 79° 39′ E., eighty miles north from Almora in Kumaon, 10,294 feet above the level of the sea. The town is built on the sloping bank of the river, and in 1808 contained only about thirty huts for the accommodation of the Brahmins and other attendants on the temple, which is about forty-five feet high, of a conical form, with a small cupola, surmounted by a copper roof, over which is a golden ball and spire. The principal idol is three feet high, cut in black stone or marble, dressed in a suit of gold and silver brocade, the hands and feet only being uncovered. This temple, in 1808 was said to possess 700 villages in different parts of Gurwal and Kumaon, and the high priesthood is restricted to the remote Deccany Brahmins of the Chauli or Namburi tribes; indeed, latterly, the pontificate used to be put up to sale by the Gorkas. During the months of pilgrimage the deity is well clothed, fares sumptuously, and has a large establishment of servants; but on the approach of winter he is packed up in a vault along with the treasure, and the priests take their departure. The number of pilgrims who visit Bhadrinath annually has been estimated at 50,000, mostly religious mendicants and devotees from all quarters of India. The surrounding country is of the most gigantic altitude. The middle peak at the head of the Bhadrinath district, marked as No. 19 B. in Capt. Hodgson and Lieut. Herbert's survey, lat. 30° 44′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E., was found to be elevated 23,441 feet above the level of the sea.

At this place there is a warm bath, supplied by a spring of hot water that issues from the mountain with a thick steam and sulphurous smell; and close to it there is a cold spring. On the 29th of May 1808 masses of snow seventy feet thick remained undissolved, and the tops of the high mountains have probably never lost their white covering since the beginning of the world. A great majority of Hindoos, who know nothing of Bhadrinath except from books, imagine that many holy persons have retired to this asylum, where they have been living for several thousand years in quiet expectation of better times. To pilgrims who arrive with hopes of meeting these personages, a cavern is pointed out as the place of their residence: but as the excavation is choked up with snow, there is no danger of its inhabitants being disturbed until the return of the golden age.—(*Raper, F. Buchanan, Capt. Hodgson, Lieut. Herbert, &c.*)

BHAGA SINGH.—A temple in Northern Hindostan, thirty-eight miles N.E. from Almora; lat 29° 48′ N., lon. 80° 13′ E.; 7,635 feet above the level of the sea.

BHAGESUR *(Bhagiswara)*.—A mart in Northern Hindostan, district of Kumaon, situated west of the Cali branch of the Goggra river, twenty-two miles E.N.E. from Almora; lat. 29° 52′ N., lon. 79° 53′ E. Fairs are held here three times in the year, and are attended by traders from the low country.

BHAGWUNTGHUR.—A Rajpoot village in the province of Ajmeer, sixteen miles N.W. from Rantampoor; lat. 26° 10′ N., lon. 76° 5′ E.

BHAIRAVA MATH. — A Hindoo place of worship in Northern Hindos-

tan, situated among the sources of the Ganges, eight miles W.S.W. from Gangoutri.

BHALLODE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the south bank of the Nerbudda, fifteen miles N.E. from Broach; lat. 21° 50′, lon. 73° 15′ E.

BHAMBHORA GHUR.—A fort in Northern Hindostan, district of Bussaher, situated on the lofty ridge between the Andryti and Matroti, two feeders of the Paber river; lat. 31° 14′ N., lon. 77° 47′ E. Elevation above the sea, 9,844 feet.

BHANMO *(or Panmo)*.—A town in the Burmese dominions situated on the banks of the Irawaddy, 170 miles north from the city of Ava; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 96° 45′ E., twenty miles from the province of Yunan in China. This is the capital of one of the nine principalities of the Shans or Mrelap Shans, as they are designated by the Burmese. This principality is said to occupy the space between the Irawaddy and China, and is said to have been taken from the Chinese since the accession of the present Birman dynasty.—(*Symes, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHANPOOR.—A town in the province of Orissa, sixty-five miles S.W. from Cuttack; lat. 19° 48′ N. During the insurrection of the Pykes, this was for some time the head-quarters of the second battalion, eighteenth regiment of Bengal Native Infantry, commanded by Major William Hamilton, who along with nearly all his detachment fell a victim to the unhealthiness of the post. This officer joined the Bengal army in 1797, when only fifteen years of age, and on the 4th of May 1799 entered the breach at the storming of Seringapatam, with the grenadiers of his battalion. He afterwards served as a subaltern in many other quarters, during the intervals of leisure devoting his attention to the study of the Asiatic languages, in some of which (the Arabic, Persian, and Maharatta) he attained so remarkable a proficiency, that he was appointed under Mr. Elphinstone to the escorts at Poona and Nagpoor, with a view to his assistance in the diplomatic department. After taking the usual furlough to Europe, he rejoined the Bengal army, and served through the Nepaulese campaign; but, as happened to many other officers, without any opportunity of distinguishing himself. From the Himalaya mountains he was marched south to the salt swamps of Cuttack, where he met his fate on the 19th April 1818, at the premature age of thirty-seven, and now lies buried at Juggernauth. Like almost all really brave men, his manners were singularly gentle and inoffensive, and his disposition so kind and charitable, that he probably never had an enemy. By his personal friends he was sincerely beloved, and among these may be mentioned, as best known to fame, Sir John Malcolm and Sir James Mackintosh.

BHANPOORA.—A large town in the province of Malwa belonging to Holkar, situated on the Rewa river, district of Rampoora; lat. 24° 31′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The fort here has never been completed. The walls are built of stone, and there is a palace within also unfinished. They were both begun by Jeswunt Row Holkar, of whom there is a carved marble statue, and the walls are likewise ornamented with sculpture. It is one of the best built towns in this quarter, and in 1820 was estimated to contain a population of 13,406 persons.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BHATEE.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-one miles north from Banda; lat. 25° 45′ N., lon. 80° 20′ E.

BHATTA.—A considerable town in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, forty-five miles S. by E. from Bhanpoora; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

BHATTIA.—A town situated near the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula; lat. 22° 9′ N., lon. 69° 26′ E.

BHATNEER.—This town, the modern capital of the Bhatty tribe, is of some antiquity, as it was taken and destroyed by Timour, when he invaded Hindostan in 1398, when the surrounding country must have been in a much superior condition, or it would neither have attracted his notice or subsisted his vast army. It stands on the eastern verge of the great sandy desert, in lat. 29° 36′ N., lon. 74° 12′ E.; about 130 miles N.N.E. from Bicanere, and 100 N.W. from Hissar. The whole country west of Hissar to Bhatneer is an immense plain, in travelling over which the stages are long and water scanty. By the natives the soil is described as of a hard substance and blueish colour, so as at a distance to have the appearance of water. This town was taken from the Bhatteeas in 1807 by the Raja of Bicanere, who in 1810 still retained possession.—(*Lieut. White, E. Gardner, &c.*)

BHATGONG.—A city in northern Hindostan, and, before the Goorka conquests, the seat of an independent chief; lat. 27° 40′ N., lon. 85° 8′ E.; eight miles E.S.E. from Catmandoo. It ranks the third of the Nepaulese valley, and thirty years ago was estimated to contain 12,000 houses; but, probably, the number was exaggerated by the native informant. The palace and other buildings have rather a striking appearance, owing chiefly to the excellent quality of the bricks and tiles, in the manufacture of which the Nepaulese excel. Its ancient name was Dharmapatan, by the Newars it is called Khopodais, from its resemblance to the dumbroo or guitar of Siva. Bhatgong is the Benares of the Gorkha dominions, and was supposed to contain many valuable Sanscrit manuscripts; but none have as yet been brought to European notice. It is also the favourite residence of the Nepaulese Brahmins, containing more families of that caste than Catmandoo and Lalita Patan together, but they are not in great repute either for learning or devotion. Of the lower classes a great proportion are Newars, the Khetri or military tribe flocking to the capital for employment.—(*Kirkpatrick, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHATTIES.—The country of the Bhatties is situated in the north-eastern quarter of the Ajmeer province, about the thirtieth degree of north latitude, and, until the progress of events brought the British arms into their vicinity, were scarcely known even by name. It is difficult to assign limits to such a country and such a people, both abhorrent of definition, but the following may be considered an approximation towards accuracy. To the north it may be described as limited by the combined streams of the Sutuleje and Beyah (the Hysudrus and Hyphasis), here named the Gurrah; on the south by the territories of the Bicanere Raja and the Shekawutties; on the east it has the district of Hurrianna, and protected chiefs in the Delhi province; and on the west the great sandy desert, of which it is almost an integral portion. The north-east corner, in some old maps named Latty Afghany, is still wholly unknown, although within a short distance of the British cantonments at Luddeeanna. This extensive tract of waste country forms a natural boundary to the British possessions in this quarter of Hindostan.

From the town of Futtehabad to Bhatneer, along the banks of the Cuggur river, is the part of the Bhatty territories best adapted for cultivation, being (it is reported) benefitted by the overflowing of that river; but respecting its source, course, and termination, our knowledge is still very imperfect. The land within the influence of this inundation is said to produce wheat, rice, and barley; the remainder of the Bhatty country, owing to the want of moisture, is mostly unfit for agricultural purposes. The Cuggur is now lost in the sands to the west of Bhatneer, although it is supposed formerly to have joined the Sutuleje in

the vicinity of Ferozepoor. In the month of March the tanks dry up rapidly, after which deep wells are the only resource for the parched cattle and their owners. Bhatneer and Batindeh are the principal Bhatty towns; but those best known to Europeans are situated in the vicinity of Hurrianna (where in some parts this tribe claim a right of pasturage), and are named Futtehabad, Sirsah, Raneah, Beerghur, and Beeranah. There is but little trade carried on in this community, the members of which have hitherto preferred thieving to every other vocation. With the exception of the sale of the surplus grain, ghee, and cattle (all insignificant except the last), they maintain but little intercourse with the neighbouring states, and that chiefly through petty traffickers of the Sheikh Furreed sect. Their imports are white cloth, sugar, and salt.

The Bhatties were originally shepherds, of whom various tribes are still found in the Punjab, and scattered over the high grounds east of the Indus from the sea to Ooch. In the institutes of Acber these hordes are by Abul Fazel named Ashambatty. Their chiefs were originally Rajpoots, but now Mahomedans; which faith has also been adopted by the lower castes, who were originally Jauts. They have long been noted as a plundering people, remarkable in Hindostan for carrying on their depredations on foot, and for the length and rapidity of their pedestrian excursions. The Bhatty females appear in public unveiled, and are not compelled to observe the strict seclusion so universal elsewhere among the followers of Mahomed.

Prior to the cession of Hurrianna to the British, the chief of the Bhatties was Khan Bahadur Khan, who in 1810 held twenty-one villages, including Futtehabad, Sirsah, and Raneah. It was then estimated that the force which the Bhatties could collect would not exceed 10,000 men, of whom not one-sixteenth possessed fire-arms. They were found, however, very expert in conducting a night attack, and would travel on their expeditions to a very unexpected distance. In the year above-mentioned Raneah formed the western boundary of Khan Bahadur's country, having an extensive tract of waste land on the north, west, and south. Bhatneer, the nearest town, is distant about forty road miles to the west. The town of Nehar lies forty-three road miles to the south, and belongs to a Shekawutty chieftain. The town of Tulwunda, subject to Raja Saheb Singh, stands about forty road miles to the north. Some years prior to the British conquests in this part of Hindostan, the revenues of Futtehabad, Sirsah, and Raneah were estimated at 40,000 rupees per annum. It is said to have since become less productive, on account of the banks which have been constructed across the Cuggur river by the Seik chiefs to the north-west, which have prevented these pergunnahs from receiving their due share of the stream. It was also calculated, that if the Bhatty country taken possession of had been retained, it would have yielded a revenue of 80,000 rupees per annum, although distress had been caused by a deficiency of rain in that arid region.

On the first occupation of Hurrianna in 1809, nothing was left undone by the British authorities to conciliate the Bhatties, who were assured that their frontier would no longer be disturbed by banditti from thence, as had hitherto been the case under all native governments. The Bhatty chiefs were in their turn solicited to restrain the predatory habits of their subjects, and suppress all aggressions on a friendly territory; but it was eventually found that they contemned all authority that interfered with their schemes of plunder. Bahadur Khan also declined affording his assistance, declaring he was apprehensive of being entrapped and made prisoner, as had happened during the Gallo-Maharatta sway in upper Hindostan.

All amicable overtures being rejected, and the aggressions on the inhabi-

tants of Hurrianna continuing, an expedition was marched into the Bhatty country in December 1810, under the command of Col. Adams: when Bahadur Khan was expelled, and Futtehabad and other refractory towns submitted without resistance. On this occasion Zabeta Khan (the son of Bahadur Khan) joined the British camp, without stipulating for any terms; in consideration of which unconditional submission, all his country was restored to him, with the exception of Futtehabad, which was retained as a frontier post, from whence a garrison could superintend the motions of this unquiet race, whom it was difficult to wean from the predatory habits to which they had been accustomed from time immemorial. The towns of Beerghur and Beeraneh were also re-annexed to the district of Hurrianna, from which they had been separated. In making these experiments, it was judged expedient that Zabeta Khan should receive back his territories unencumbered by any tributary engagement, as the payment of a tribute virtually implied an obligation on the superior power to protect its tributary, which might eventually have proved embarrassing, and was at the same time completely at variance with the fundamental maxim of British policy, as referring to the native principalities of Hindostan. For some time afterwards tranquillity prevailed through the Bhatty country, but in 1818 they again became restless, and possessed themselves of Futtehabad, which had been held by the Seiks under the British authority. A strong detachment was in consequence again marched into the country, for the purpose of destroying all the petty forts, and expelling the agitators, which service was effected without encountering any serious opposition. —(*Lieut. White, George Thomas, Col. Adams, Archibald Seton, &c.*)

Bhavani River.—A river in the Coimbatoor province which flows past the town of Sattimungalum, and afterwards joins the Krishna at Bhavani Kudal.

Bhavani Kudal.—A town in the Coimbatoor province, fifty-eight miles N.E. from the town of Coimbatoor; lat. 11° 26′ N., lon. 77° 44′ E. It stands at the conflux of the Bhavani and Cavery, on which account it is considered a place of superior sanctity, and much resorted to by the Hindoos. It also contains two celebrated temples, one dedicated to Vishnu, and the other to Siva.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bhawur.—A pergunnah in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna. The section of this pergunnah situated to the west of the Tonse was formerly named Bucan, but now Dewghur, from being the spot where the sect and tenets of the Mahassoo Dewtah religion originated, since which epocha the Dewghur division has been considered holy land.

According to Brahminical traditions, at a remote era of time, a man ploughing in the pergunnah of Bucan saw a snake, which, erecting itself before him, said, "I am the divinity of the place: raise near this spot an image to be worshipped, and call it Mahassoo Dewtah, and it will reveal to you laws that are to be obeyed." On learning this vision of the cultivator some Brahmins made an image, and placed it in the field where the snake had appeared, and after some time had passed away, it was inspired to give them the following instructions, the observance of which secures the devout from the evils of the present world, and insures their happiness in that which is to come, *viz.*

1st. Never to sleep in a bed with four legs.

2d. Never to drink pure milk. Butter-milk is permitted, but it is meritorious to abstain from the eating of butter, it being more praiseworthy to burn it at the shrines of the Mahassoo Dewtah or demigod.

3d. Always to sacrifice the finest goats on the demigod's altar, and if similar sacrifices elsewhere be abstained from, so much the better.

Some time after the promulgation of this specimen of supernatural wis-

dom, the Brahmins removed the image to Oonooree, on the east bank of the Tonse, where it still remains, much venerated by the people, and its priesthood amply supplied with offerings.—(*Public MS. Documents, Birch, &c.*)

BHEEKUNGAUM.—A walled village with a mud fort belonging to Holcar, in the province of Candeish, pergunnah of Kurgoond, fifty-two miles N.N.W. from Boorhampoor. This was formerly a large town, but so entirely ruined by the Pindarry incursions, that only seventy-five houses remained. In 1820 the inhabitants were returning, and one street was re-occupied.—(*Fullarton, Malcolm, &c.*)

BHEELS.—See MALWA and CANDEISH.

BHEEMFED.—A small village in the Nepaulese territories situated on the Rapty, whence a road leads over the Cheesapany mountain; lat. 27° 33′ N., lon. 84° 50′ E., fourteen miles S.W. from Catmandoo. At this place the valley of the Rapty finishes, and the high mountains of Lama Dangra separate it from the country on the north, watered by the branches of the Bogmutty.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHEEMTAL LAKE.—A small but picturesque lake in northern Hindostan, among the mountains of Kumaon, twenty-nine miles travelling distance south from Almora, and on the high road from thence to Bamouri. The shape of this lake approaches the figure of a triangle, the length of the longest side being a mile, and of the shortest five furlongs; but it appears at some former period to have been considerably larger, and its decrease has been attributed to the depositions from the different streams flowing into it. About the centre its depth is eleven fathoms, and its elevation above the sea 4,271 feet. On the margin is a temple of Mahadeva or Siva, and the remains of an old Gorkha fort on an eminence to the south, below which stands the village of Bheemtal, consisting of a few miserable huts, with a government house for the accommodation of travellers, having a commissariat depôt attached. About two miles to the east of Bheemtal there is another small lake, equally beautiful, named the Naokoochea Tal, and the natives report that there are many others in the vicinity.—(*Fullarton, Webb, &c.*)

BHEINDUR.—A small town in the Ajmeer province, division of Chitore, situated on the Goompty river, thirty miles E. by S. from Odeypoor. In 1820 it was the head of a pergunnah, yielding a revenue of about 30,000 rupees per annum, to a relative of the Odeypoor Ranas; but the town did not contain more than 600 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BHEER.—A small district in the Nizam's dominions in the province of Aurungabad, situated between the 18th and 19th degrees of north latitude. This is a hilly tract of country, thinly peopled and ill governed; but respecting which almost nothing is known, as is the case with the Nizam's dominions generally. It is intersected by two small streams, the Sindpuna and Kundya. Bheer, the principal town, stands in lat. 19° 1′ N., lon. 75° 58′ E., seventy miles E. from Ahmednuggur.

BHILARAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, forty-seven miles N.E. from the city of Odeypoor; lat. 25° 26′ N., lon. 74° 47′ E. In 1818 this place presented vestiges of former opulence and industry, but at that period, owing to the anarchy so long prevalent in Rajpootana, it was nearly roofless and depopulated.

BHIND.—A town in the Agra province south of the Chumbul, forty-six miles N.E. from Gualior; lat 26° 27′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

BHINDUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, thirty-four miles E.S.E. from Odeypoor. Lat. 24° 3′ N., lon. 74° 13′ E.

BHIRKOT.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, consisting of mountains, and containing neither mines or

mart; formerly one of the twenty-four rajaships, but at present subject to the Nepaulese; lat. 27° 58′ N., lon. 83° 48′ E.

Bhira.—A town in the Lahore province, eighty-two miles N.W. from the city of Lahore; lat. 32° 10′ N., lon. 72° 50′ E.

Bhirowal.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north side of the Beyah river, which when the floods are at the highest is here 740 yards over. Lat. 31° 20′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E., twenty-four miles S.E. from Amritsir.

Bhisagong.—A village in the Singpho country adjacent to Assam, situated about lat. 27° 28′ N., lon. 95° 40′ E.

Bhobaneser (*Bhavaneswara*).—At Bulwanta, in the province of Orissa, on the new road, sixteen miles from the town of Cuttack, a lofty massive tower is seen rising among the thickets that skirt the frontiers of Khoorda, six miles within which are the remains of the ruined city of Bhobaneser, consisting of deserted and dilapidated towers and temples sacred to the worship of Mahadeva. From amidst the whole rises the great pagoda of the Ling Raja (Siva), conspicuous for size, loftiness, and the superiority of its architecture.

The natives say there were originally more than 7,000 places of worship consecrated here to Mahadeva, and that it contained no less than a crore of lingams. The vestiges of many places of this description are still visible, mostly mere shapeless masses of brick, buried amongst brushwood and rank vegetation. The buildings are constructed of a reddish granite, resembling sandstone, in the form of towers rounded towards the summit, seldom less than sixty, and one rising to even 180 feet in height. The stones are held together by iron clamps, but no wood is to be seen throughout. The exterior is adorned with a profusion of sculptured ornaments, and the ruined courts scattered over with an infinite variety of bulls, lingams, and other symbols of Mahadeva, mixed with the forms, energies, and attributes of the whole Hindoo Pantheon.

About the centre the great tower or sanctuary rises to the elevation of 180 feet, crowned by an ornamented crest or head-piece, resembling a turban, which figure forms a distinguishing feature in the temple architecture of Orissa. The local traditions and histories concur in fixing the date of its completion in A.D. 657. The city of Bhavaneser was founded by Raja Lalat Indra Kesari, who reigned between A.D. 617 and 660. A small establishment is still kept up here by the Khoorda Rajas, and the ruins are occasionally visited by Bengalese pilgrims on their way to Juggernauth. Among the curiosities of the neighbourhood is a huge figure of the lingam, forty feet high, consisting of one single shaft of sandstone.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

Bhojipoor.—A town in the Oude territories, 102 miles N. from Lucknow; lat. 28° 20′ N., lon. 80° 53′ E.

Bhonsla.—An old subdivision of the Concan, in the province of Bejapoor, bounded on the north by the Dewghur river, on the south by the Portuguese territories attached to Goa, and on the west by the sea. Like the rest of the Concan it resembles an inclined plane, with an irregular surface, declining in height from the western ghauts as it approaches the sea. It is traversed by many mountain streams, such as the Dewghur and Atchera, and formerly the resort of the piratical fleets that infested the west coast of India. The principal town is Warree, or Sawuntwarree, the chief of which is usually denominated the Bhonsla. The other towns of note are Malwan, Vingorla, and Raree. It is now comprehended within the British Concan districts.

Bhooj.—The modern capital of Cutch, founded about two centuries ago by Row Bharra; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 69° 52′ E. It stands on the S.W. side of a hill, on which extensive but

ill planned fortifications have been erected, as they afford no protection to the town. Viewed from the north, Bhooj has an imposing appearance from the display of white buildings, mosques, and pagodas, interspersed among plantations of date trees; but a nearer approach detracts from the prior respectability of its appearance. The Row's palace, however, is a castle of good masonry, the cupolas and roofs of which are encrusted with a sort of enamel that gives it a Chinese appearance. To the west of the town, and covering two short faces of the fort, is a large tank, with stairs down to the water, and in the centre an elevated terrace. In 1818 the town contained about 20,000 inhabitants, among whom are artists remarkable for their ingenuity in working gold and silver. In 1819 the hill-fort of Bhooj was taken by escalade by a detachment under Sir William Keir, and on the 16th June of the same year both town and fort were nearly destroyed by an earthquake.—(*Macmurdo, &c.*)

BHOOTEAS.—See BHUTANT.

BHOPAUL.—See BOPAUL.

BHOPAWUR.—A ruinous town in the province of Malwa belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the right bank of the Mhye river; lat. 22° 37′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E.

BHORASSA.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, division of Harrowty, situated on the left bank of the Cali Sind river. The inhabitants manufacture mill-stones from excellent free-stone found in the neighbourhood.

BHOREGHAUT *(the great)*. — A ghaut or pass in the province of Aurungabad through the western range of mountains, ascended on the road from Bombay to Poona. Since the expulsion of the Peshwa this pass has been greatly enlarged and improved, and an excellent carriage road, five miles in length, now forms the communication between the maritime district of Calliance and the table-land of the Deccan, exhibiting the most magnificent scenery.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BHOREGHAUT *(the less)*.—A pass through the mountains that stretch across the division of Jooneer in the Aurungabad province, commencing about nineteen miles S.E. by E. from Poona. The ascent is rather steep and stony, but neither difficult or long, and leads to a region elevated about 600 feet above the more northern tract of table-land, where stands the city of Poonah. In travelling southward, a marked improvement of the temperature is experienced immediately after clearing this pass.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BHOWANIPOOR.—A town, or rather market-place, in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, situated in the division of Ranny Sonkol. At the festival of Nekmundun (a Mahomedan saint) a great meeting is held here, from the 7th to the 17th of April. A military guard and civil officers attend to preserve peace, for the multitude is great, and consists chiefly of rogues, thieves, prostitutes, swindlers, musicians, jugglers, showmen, and religious mendicants, augmented by idlers, pilgrims, and traders from Bootan, Nepaul, Purneah, Benares, Patna, Rungpoor, and Moorshedabad, the aggregate sometimes amounting to 100,000 persons.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

BHOWANNY *(Bhavani)*.—A town in the Delhi province, eighty-two miles W. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 37′ N., lon. 75° 40′ E. In 1809 it was stormed in open day by a British detachment under Col. Ball, and captured with the loss of 136 killed and wounded, the inhabitants being confident of their strength from having repelled all former attacks by the native powers.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BHOW BEGUM.—See FYZABAD.

BHOWNUGGUR.—A seaport town in the province of Gujerat, situated on the west side of the Gulf of Cambay, lat. 21° 48′ N., lon. 72° 16′ E. It was

named after the grandfather of the present Rawul, who founded it on the site of a village called Joona Wurwa. These princes had the good sense to encourage trade and extirpate piracy: the town in consequence waxed rich, and is now the chief mart for the export and import trade of Cattywar, Ahmedabad, and Marwar. One curious and not very creditable manufacture has long been established here, which is a mint for the fabrication of base money, where every sort of rupee current on the west side of India is so well counterfeited, that even native bankers have been deceived. In 1812 the Raja was not only suspected of conniving at the practice, but also for sharing in the profits. From 1810 to 1814 thirty-eight Arabian vessels arrived here aggregating 2,716 tons, Surat and Bhownuggur being their chief places of resort. In 1821 the harbour was injured by the bursting of embankments.

In 1807, with the voluntary concurrence of the Raja, the tribute he used to pay to the Guicowar, amounting to 74,500 rupees, was transferred to the British government; but this change did not authorize any interference with the internal concerns of the genuine Bhownuggur territory. In 1809 it was discovered that its chieftain, although tributary, and actually under the protection of the British government, connived at the depredations of the turbulent Catties, and was in consequence fined. In 1816 his military establishment amounted to 900 infantry and 1,090 horsemen, a large proportion of whom he subsequently discharged; but kept the remainder in so effective a state, that in 1820, after a long and persevering pursuit, they attacked and nearly destroyed a considerable party of Komaun Catties, whose depredations, however, the Bhownuggur cabinet was strongly suspected of having instigated. This being an extraordinary instance of effectual aid derived from a native ally, Mr. Elphinstone, the governor of Bombay, addressed a suitable complimentary letter to the thakoor. His connivance, however, with the plunderers, having been subsequently clearly proved, he and his dewan were fined in the mitigated penalty of 100,000 rupees, for having originally created the insurrection, which his troops took so active a part in suppressing.—(*Public MS. Documents, A. Robertson, Carnac, Walker, &c.*)

BHUGWANEEA.—A small insulated district in the province of Candeish, bounded on the west by Nemaur, and on the north and south by the Satpoora and Vindhya ranges of mountains, and on the east by Gundwana. It is nearly bisected by the Nerbudda river. The principal towns are Hindia and Hurdah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BHUGWUNTGUR.—A fortress in the province of Bejapoor, situated on a steep rocky hill close to the Massoora river, which is about 400 yards wide with a deep muddy bottom. Lat. 16° 8′ N., lon. 73° 38′ E., fifty-seven miles N.W. from Goa.

BHUJEE.—A petty state in northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna. It contains no fort except that of Kungur, which is possessed by the Cahlore Raja. Bhujee was conquered in 1811 by the Gorkhas, who were expelled in 1814 by Sir David Ochterlony. In 1815 the total revenue was estimated at 6,500 rupees per annum.—(*Lt. Ross, &c.*)

BHURASOO.—A village in northern Hindostan, one of the remotest T'hats or divisions of Roween. Lat. 31° 17′ N., lon. 78° 25′ E., seventy-seven miles N. by W. from Serinagur.

BHURTPOOR (*Bharatapura.*) The capital of an independent native chief in the province of Agra, thirty-one miles W. by N. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 17′ N., lon. 77° 23′ E. The Bhurtpoor territory, including the small pergunnah of Tanua, is superior in extent to that of the Macherry Raja, and reaches from Gopaulghur, in lat. 27° 39′ N. to Biana, and forms the western boundary of

the Agra district. In 1818 the total area was rather less than 5,000 square miles. Bhurtpoor, Deeg, Combhere, Weyre, and Biana are the chief towns. Gopaulghur is a strong fort, and the town of Kurnau is of great extent, with a large brick fort in the centre, but in a ruinous condition; only the eastern quarter of the town being inhabited. Nuggur, Robass, Wheeguish, Roodawah, Nudbharee, Phurser, and others, are of little note. The country from Deeg to Bhurtpoor is so low, that during the heavy rains it may be said to be completely inundated. In 1823 the Bhurtpoor territory was in a most flourishing condition, the villages numerous and well constructed, and the crops waving abundance, yet the peasantry went constantly armed, which did not indicate such consciousness of personal safety as is to be seen within the British districts. The peacock is here held in such veneration, that it is dangerous to kill it. The Bhurtpoor Raja is one of the principal chieftains of the Jauts, which are a tribe of low Sudras, who, presuming on their temporary importance, venture to assume the title of Khetri (the military caste). They must, however, be carefully discriminated from the Jauts or Juts, who are the old Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab.

The tribe of Jauts first attracted notice in Hindostan about A.D. 1700, when having migrated from the banks of the Indus, in the lower part of the province of Mooltan, they were allowed to settle in the avocations of industry in several parts of the Doab, of the Ganges, and Jumna. Their subsequent progress was uncommonly rapid; and during the civil wars carried on by the successors of Aurengzebe, they found means to secure themselves a large portion of country, in which they built forts and accumulated treasure. The title of raja is a Hindoo distinction some of them have assumed, but to which they have no more real right than their ancestors had to the contents of the imperial caravans, which they were in the habit of plundering. During Aurengzebe's last march to the Deccan, Churamun, the Jaut, pillaged the baggage of the army, and with part of the spoil erected the fortress of Bhurtpoor. Sooraj Mull, one of his successors, new modelled the government, and was afterwards killed in battle with Nudjiff Khan, A.D. 1763. He was succeeded by his son Jewar Singh, who was secretly murdered in 1768, at which period the Jaut dominions extended from Agra to within a few miles of Delhi on the north, and near to Etaweh on the south. They also possessed a tract south of the Jumna; and, besides places of inferior strength, had three forts, then deemed impregnable. About 1780, Nudjiff Khan subdued great part of the Jaut country, and left the raja little besides Bhurtpoor, and a small district of about seven lacks of rupees per annum.

On the death of Jewar Singh in 1768, his brother Ruttun Singh ascended the throne, and being also assassinated, was succeeded by his brother Kairy Singh, on whose death Runjeet Singh assumed the sovereignty. When Madhaje Sindia first undertook the conquest of Upper Hindostan, he experienced essential assistance from Raja Runjeet Singh, who on this account was treated with great comparative lenity by the Maharattas.

In September 1803 a treaty of perpetual friendship was concluded by General Lake, on the part of the British government, with the Bhurtpoor Raja, and so sincere was the union on the part of the former, that districts yielding a revenue of 754,000 rupees per annum were made over to the latter in full sovereignty. Notwithstanding so regular a compact, ratified in the most solemn manner with all the customary formalities, and in the maintenance of which both the Raja's interest and honour seemed concerned, in 1805 this prince most unaccountably espoused the declining cause of Jeswunt Row Holcar, recently discomfited by Lord Lake, and admitted him with the shattered remains of

his army into the fortress of Bhurtpoor, before which the British army arrived on the 3d of January 1805.

Bhurtpoor is a town of great extent, and every where strongly fortified, being surrounded by a mud-wall of great height and thickness, with a very wide and deep ditch. The fort stands at the eastern extremity, and is of a square figure, one side overlooking the country, the other three within the town. It occupies a site that appears more elevated than the town; its walls are also said to be higher, and its ditch of greater width and depth. The circumference of both town and fort is about eight miles, and their walls, in all their extent, are flanked with bastions at short distances, on which are mounted very numerous artillery. When Lord Lake's army approached Bhurtpoor a large expanse of water at the north-west side of the town suddenly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole had been admitted into the ditch that surrounds the town and fort.

Within these fortifications the whole forces of the Bhurtpoor Raja were concentrated. The infantry of Jeswunt Row had taken a position and entrenched themselves under the walls, and all the inhabitants of the adjacent country, who were in any way capable of aiding the defence, were thrown into the place. The assembly of such a multitude created the most serious obstacles to the operations of the British army. Measures were speedily executed to retard its progress, and the effects of the battering train were almost immediately repaired, which probably constituted the most efficient source of that resistance which was experienced during the siege.

The town and fort were amply provided with all kinds of military stores, Bhurtpoor having long been the mart of Hindostan for these articles, which had also been accumulated by the Raja. The great extent of the place, and the smallness of the besieging army, confined the operations to one point; the besieged had consequently an opportunity of procuring supplies from the neighbouring country, which would have been precluded could the place have been completely invested. In the course of this siege, also, the British engineer officers, however zealous in the performance of their duty, were found, neither in abilities, knowledge, or experience, adequate to the magnitude of the exigence; which deficiency doubtless had considerable effect in impeding the progress of the besieging army. And, finally, due credit must be given to the bravery of its defenders, and to the military conduct of their leaders. But there is reason to believe that, with the exception of Holcar's forces encamped under the walls, and which were attacked and routed with the loss of all their artillery, the garrison and inhabitants sustained but a trifling loss compared with the enormous carnage which destroyed the flower of the British army, amounting to 3,100 killed and wounded, *viz.*

1st storm	.....	456
2d do.	.....	591
3d do.	.....	894
4th do.	.....	987
		2,928
Casualties	.....	172
Total	.....	3,100

Notwithstanding so obstinate a defence, and the slaughter which thinned the ranks of the besiegers, the Raja, perceiving that their perseverance must ultimately prevail, sent his son to Lord Lake's camp with the keys of the fortress, and agreed to compel Holkar to quit Bhurtpoor. On the 17th April, the siege being thus concluded, a second treaty was arranged, but with stipulations calculated to enforce a stricter performance of its conditions. The territory conferred on him was resumed, he engaged to pay twenty lacks of rupees towards the expenses of the war, and to leave his son as a hostage until events proved that his fidelity could be relied on. From

this date his policy seems to have been to thwart and irritate the British government to the utmost verge of its forbearance, and to concede immediately when a crisis seemed impending. While M. Perron governed Upper Hindostan, he made the petty chiefs instantly obey his most dictatorial mandate; but they have been treated by the British with such delicacy and liberality that their dependent condition has wholly disappeared, and, with a native perversity of disposition, they think it unable to enforce, what it hesitates to command.

Raja Runjeet Singh, who so well defended his capital, died early in 1824, and was succeeded by his son Baldeo Singh: who died suddenly on the 28th February, at Goubherdon, having scarcely sat a month on the throne; leaving a son, Bulwunt Singh, then seven years of age, who was recognized by Sir David Ochterlony as the legitimate successor. In March 1825 his mother and uncle, his guardians, were attacked by Durjunt Sal, a cousin of the young Raja's, the uncle murdered, many lives lost, and the boy taken possession of by the usurper. Lord Amherst, then Governor-general, forbore resorting to coercion as long as hopes could be reasonably entertained of accomplishing by means of negociation the restoration to power of the legitimate prince; but every effort having been exhausted, and a powerful army assembled, siege was laid to the place: which, after six weeks of open trenches, was captured by storm on the 18th January 1826, with the loss of sixty-one Europeans and forty-two natives killed, and 283 Europeans and 183 natives wounded; total 569: while the garrison lost about 4,000 men, mostly killed. Durjunt Sal and his family were caught during their flight, and sent prisoners to Allahabad. The principal bastions, curtains, and other important parts of the fortification, were subsequently blown up and demolished, and the fortresses of Biana, Deeg, Weyre, Kumbhere, and Kama, having surrendered without opposition, were occupied by British garrisons. — (*Lord Lake, the Marquis Wellesley, Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Hunter, Franklin, &c.*)

BHUTANT.—A tract of country in Northern Hindostan which formerly composed the Bhote provinces of Tibet, which commence on the north from the table-land beyond the mountains. They comprise different passes into Tibet, and some of the loftiest peaks of the Himalaya, and are now attached to the districts of Gurwal and Kumaon. A great proportion of the surface is above the line of perpetual congelation, and an interval of four months without a fall of snow is a rare occurrence. The population, estimated at 10,000, consists almost wholly of Bhooteas, almost perfect Tibetians; yet some are said to be the descendants of Mogul Tartars left by Timour. They were formerly all Buddhists of the Lama sect, but since then many have partially adopted the Hindoo religion, employing both Brahmins and Lamas. They have no distinction of caste, but still tribes and villages will not intermarry. They monopolize the trade in this quarter between Hindostan and Tibet. The name Bhutant is retained to distinguish it from Bootan, the country of the Deb Raja. The country of Bhote in this direction may be said to commence at the village of Jelam, lat. 30° 38′ N., lon. 79° 51′ E., as the inhabitants are able to continue in their houses throughout the whole year at the villages below.

After passing Jelam upwards, all access and passage is prevented by the snow from October to May, during which interval the higher Bhootea villages are entirely deserted. On the 27th June 1818 spring had just commenced in this quarter, where the productions of the lower hills are replaced by cypress, hazel, and birch trees; the bushes, consisting principally of gooseberry, currant, a dwarf species of cypress and juniper, with dog-roses red and white. The only grains that ripen are papira (peculiar

to Bhote, and resembling French wheat), cheena (the *panicum miliaceum*) and awa and jawa, two species of barley. As the spots adapted for cultivation in Bhutant are few, the villages are necessarily small in size and much dispersed: yet the climate is much warmer than might have been expected from its elevation. At Gamsali, lat. 30° 44′, about the end of June, Fahrenheit thermometer in the shade ranged during the hottest time of the day from 60° to 75°, and at daylight from 45° to 50°. After the middle of August none of the inhabitants are suffered to ascend the tops of the surrounding mountains, or to use fire-arms near the villages, such incidents being known from experience to occasion a fall of snow from above, and a frost below, both tending to injure the ripening crops.

Besides the countries we call Tibet and Bootan, the Bhooteas every where between the Cali and the Teesta occupy the alpine region adjacent to the snowy peaks of Himalaya, on both sides of the mountains, which tract is by the natives of the south termed Bhote, and the inhabitants Bhooteas. According to native accounts the Bhooteas neglect agriculture, chiefly practising commerce, and a life of monkish austerity, occasionally but unwillingly wielding the sword. Their principal support proceeds from the produce of their mines, and of the numerous flocks of sheep, goats, and cattle, the quantity of grain raised being quite inconsiderable. With respect to their complexion, it has been remarked by Dr. Francis Buchanan, that the Bhooteas he saw at Catmandoo (the capital of Nepaul) from the elevated regions of Mustung, Kuti, Lassa, and Digarcheh, were all fully as black as the natives of Canton or Ava.

Prior to the Nepaulese war this tract paid tribute to the Gorkhas, and its inhabitants were kept in a miserable state of slavery and oppression. The genuine Bhooteas here are certainly of Tartar origin, and such is their own opinion; indeed the migration is so recent, that the natives of Niti still enjoy from the Chinese government, as Tartars, certain immutities from duties paid by other traders. In language and personal appearance there is also a striking resemblance, and although they no longer intermarry, yet the Bhooteas do not hesitate to eat and drink with the Tartars. Their religions are nearly the same, except that the former have adopted several Hindoo superstitions, still retaining a great veneration for their lamas. Until conquered by the Gorkhas, bulls and cows were annually sacrificed in great numbers: but since that event, buffaloes and the chowry cattle have been substituted. The Bhooteas, however, by the other hill tribes are still considered cow-killers, and, as such, outcasts of the worst description.—(*Trail, F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bhutkot Peak.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles N.N.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 49′ N., lon. 79° 29′ E., 9,133 feet above the level of the sea.

Bhynturee.—A native fortified post in Northern Hindostan, kingdom of Nepaul, four miles east of the Cali river; lat. 29° 35′ N., lon. 80° 23′ E., 5,615 feet above the level of the sea.

Bhysouda.—A small town in the province of Malwa, near the frontier of Harrowty, which in 1820 contained 2,400 inhabitants.

Biana (*Byana*).—A town in the province of Agra belonging to the Bhurtpoor Raja, situated on the Ban Gunga river, fifty miles W.S.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 26° 57′ N., lon. 77° 8′ E. Biana preceded Agra as the capital of the province, Secunder Lodi having kept his court here while Agra was a mere village, and it is frequently mentioned by the Emperor Baber in his memoirs. It was first conquered by the Mahomedans A.D. 1197. The town is still considerable, and contains many large stone houses, and the ridge of the hill, at the foot of which it is situated,

is covered with the remains of buildings, among which is a fort containing a high pillar, conspicuous at a great distance. The bazar of Modern Biana is large, and in 1820 shewed signs of reviving commerce and an active population. The fortifications also on the neighbouring hill had then been just renovated, and strengthened with new works of masonry.—(*Abul Fazel, Hunter, Fullarton, &c.*)

Bickeyhaut.—A town in the province of Bengal situated on the right bank of the Bhagirati or Cossimbazar river, further down named the Hooghly. On the opposite bank there is a building occupied as a college of Byraggies.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bicanere (*Bicanir, or Bakanair.*) —A Rajpoot principality in the Ajmeer province, of which it occupies the centre, and situated principally between the twenty-seventh and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude. Like all other states in this waste of moving sand, its limits are difficult to settle, vast tracts being claimed and rejected by all parties, as political circumstances happen to support or oppose their pretensions. To the north it is bounded by the great Ajmeer desert and the Bhatty country; to the south by the Joudpoor and Jeypoor dominions; on the east it has the British district of Hurriana and the Shekawutty country; and on the west Jesselmere and the great desert, into which it merges. Considering their local peculiarities, and the total absence of streams, rivers, and lakes, it is a curious fact that the Hindoos of Bicanere should particularly object to the eating of fish, as sinful.

The country is rather elevated, but the surface flat, and the soil a light-brown sand, that absorbs the rain as soon as it falls; wells are consequently indispensable, are lined with brick, and from 100 to 200 feet deep. Each family has a cistern for the preservation of rain water. With the exception of a few villages on the eastern frontier, the crops are very precarious, and greatly dependent on the periodical rains. Bejurah and other kinds of Indian pulse are almost the only produce, the inhabitants trusting in a great measure for a supply of provisions to the neighbouring provinces. Horses and bullocks of an inferior breed are nearly the sole exports; the imports are coarse and fine rice, sugar, opium, and indigo. The first articles are usually brought from Lahore by the way of Rajghur and Chooroo. Salt is procured from Sambher; wheat from the Jeypoor country; spices, copper, and coarse cloth, by the road of Jesselmere. The chief stronghold is the city of Bicanere; but Chooroo, Rajghaum, and Bahudra, are reckoned strong places by the natives.

The Bicanere Raja is a Rhatore by caste, and of the same family with the Joudpoor chief, the elder branch having established itself at Joudpoor, and the junior at Bicanere. He is the least important of the five Rajpootana princes; but it does not appear that he ever paid tribute to the Maharattas, for which he was probably indebted to the distance and sterility of his principality. In 1809 his revenue amounted to only five lacks of rupees per annum; but as his troops are paid by assignments of land, he is enabled to maintain 2,000 horse and 8,000 foot, with thirty-five pieces of ordnance. His first frontier town towards the Shekawutty country is Chooroo, which may rank as the second in importance. The cultivators are mostly Jauts, some converted to the Mahomedan faith and some not. In the Lord's Prayer, as given in the Bicanere language, twenty-nine words out of thirty-two were identified by the missionaries as radically the same with those in the Hindostany and Bengalese specimens.

In 1808 these miserable territories were invaded by five different armies: when the Bicanere chief, as a measure of defence, filled up all the wells within ten miles of his capital, and trusted for deliverance to the desolation that surrounded him. Next year, in his distress, he earnestly solicited

the favourable mediation of the British government with his enemy the Joudpoor Raja; but he was informed in reply, that although the governor in council entertained a high sense of the friendly attention paid to the British envoy (Mr. Elphinstone) while passing through the Bicanere country, they could not deviate from their system of non-interference in the affairs of other states, which constituted a fundamental maxim of their general policy. Although apparently sufficiently employed in the defence of his own dominions against the aggressions of more powerful neighbours, the reigning chief has made several external conquests; amongst others, Bhatneer, the Bhatty capital, of which in 1810 he still retained possession; his existence as an independent prince was further secured by his admission, in 1818, within the pale of British confederacy and protection; and having never before paid any tribute, he was on this occasion only required to defray the expense of any British troops he might solicit.

In 1818 the army under General Arnold reduced several fortified places in the Bicanere territory, occupied by persons in a state of rebellion against the authority of the Raja, who, according to the stipulations of the treaty, paid all the expenses of the detachment.—(*Public MS. Documents, Elphinstone, Prinsep, George Thomas, Metcalfe, &c.*)

Bicanere.—A fortified town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about 260 miles W. by S. from Delhi; lat. 27° 57′ N., lon. 73° 2′ E. It stands within a tract of more than ordinary desolation, but owing to its contrast with the surrounding ocean of sand, presenting externally an appearance of magnificence that closer inspection does not justify. Within ten yards of the wall the country is as waste as the wildest tract of Arabia; but on the northern side there is something that looks like a woody valley. The most remarkable and pleasing sight here is a well of fine water, immediately under the fort where the Raja resides, 300 feet deep, and from fifteen to twenty in diameter; four buckets, each drawn by a pair of bullocks, are worked at once, and when a bucket is thrown down, the noise made by its striking the water is like the report of a great gun.

Bicanere is surrounded by a fine wall, strengthened with many round towers, and crowned with the usual Indian battlements. It contains some elevated houses and some temples, one of which has a lofty spire, and at one corner there is a high showy citadel. The town is distinguished by the whiteness of its buildings and the absence of trees, which give most Indian cities the appearance of woods rather than inhabited places; most of the dwellings are mere huts, with mud walls painted red. The fort is a confused assemblage of towers and battlements, overtopped by houses crowded together; in extent it is about a quarter of a mile square, encompassed by a wall thirty feet high, and a good dry ditch. By the natives it is reckoned a place of considerable strength, but its chief security is the scarcity of water in the surrounding country. In the Raja's service are usually several Europeans of different nations, who reside within the fort. The native inhabitants wear loose clothes, of white cotton or muslin, like the Hindostanies, but are distinguishable by their Rajpoot features and remarkable turban, rising high on the head like a mitre.—(*Elphinstone, G. Thomas, 11th Reg. &c.*)

Bidjeeghur (*Vijayaghar*). — A ruinous fortress in the province of Allahabad, district of Mirzapoor, fifty miles S. from Benares; lat. 24° 37′ N., lon. 83° 10′ E. Bidjeeghur was formerly the principal stronghold of the Benares Rajas, and was taken by the British in 1781, during the revolt of Cheet Singh, and has ever since been neglected, partly on account of its insalubrity.—(*Foster, Rennell, &c.*)

Bedouly.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirteen miles N.E. from

Paniput; lat. 29° 32′ N., lon. 77° 6′ E.

Bijanagur *(Vijayanagara)*.—A Hindoo city of great fame and antiquity in the province of Beejapoor, named in the Canarese Annagoondy, and occasionally Alpatna, these names being sometimes applied to the city, and at others only to certain portions; lat. 15° 14′ N., lon. 76° 37′ E., twenty-nine miles N.W. from Bellary. The remains of this city occupies both sides of the Toombuddra; and it is to the division on the south-east of the river that the name of Bijanagur is usually applied, while that on the north-west bank is called Annagoondy.

The spot selected for the erection of this famous capital is a very singular one. It is a plain, enclosed by and encumbered with stupendous masses of granite, which in some places swell up from the surface to the form and magnitude of hills, and in others present detached blocks of various forms, piled over one another in all sorts of fantastical combinations, occasionally surrounding little isolated vallies, and elsewhere obstructing all passage except through the narrow-winding defiles which separate the fragments. The communications from street to street, and in some cases the streets also, follow the mazes of these chasms, and in one quarter the principal thoroughfare is under a naturally covered passage, formed by the rocks; the ancient battlements, turrets, and gateways are still in a high state of preservation; the main streets, paved with immense flags of granite, are intersected at intervals by aqueducts; and tanks and wells are excavated in the rock. Temples, choultries, and many other edifices, public and private, of the purest style of Hindoo architecture and great dimensions, are seen perched on the most conspicuous eminence of the naked rock, or ranged in long lines on the plain. The walls, pillars, arches, and even the flat roofs and beams of all these structures, are composed of the granite, which is so abundant on the spot, cut into such enormous masses, that it is difficult to imagine how a people ignorant of mechanics could have transported them to their present positions. Some blocks are from twelve to fifteen feet broad, and thick in proportion; and though of unequal bulk and various shapes, are universally well cut, fitted to each other with the greatest nicety, and display at this day an exterior lustre surpassing that of most buildings of twenty years' standing. It is owing to this superiority of material, and the cyclopean style of their masonry, that the ruins of Bijanagur so far excel in extent and grandeur those of any other ancient city, purely Hindoo, from Hurdwar to Cape Comorin.

The Toombuddra, where it separates Annagoondy from Bijanagur, is about one-third of a mile broad, with a rapid irregularly winding course among the granite hills, and much interrupted by detached rocks rising above its surface, surmounted by an image of the bull Nundy, an open portico, or choultry, or some other religious edifice. At the principal ferry there is a picturesque group of temples, and a huge figure of Hoonimaun, the gigantic monkey, carved in basso relievo; on the eastern promontory similar sculptures abound among the ruins. Opposite to the upper portion of the Bijanagur section of the town the river contracts greatly, and was formerly traversed by a stone bridge.

Bijanagur Proper is enclosed, partly by natural barriers and partly by strong stone walls, on the south and east, and by the Toombuddra on the north and west, encompassing a circumference of at least eight miles; but a large portion of this area is encumbered by inaccessible acclivities. There is a continued succession of paved streets, now nearly uninhabited, for three miles, from the Toombuddra ferry to Humpa, near the western extremity; and the appearance of the ruins about Camlapoor on the south-west, indicate that they also were once included

within the city boundaries. At Humpa there is a magnificent temple dedicated to Mahadeva, standing in the midst of a vast area, surrounded by the cells for the devotees, and having a pyramidical portico facing the east of ten stories, and about 160 feet in height. This edifice terminates a noble street about ninety feet wide, stretching east and west nearly parallel to the Toombuddra (from which it is separated by rows of venerable trees) to another temple near its opposite extremity, with an image of the bull Nundy, twelve feet high, carved out of the rock. The temple of the destroyer (Mahadeva) is well endowed, and attended by numerous Brahmins; and the street itself is lined by a row of handsome stone buildings, decorated with sculptures, and intended for the accommodation of pilgrims during the annual festival.

Between Humpa and Camlapoor there intervenes a ridge of lofty rugged rocks, traversed by a steep causeway, and studded with pagodas. The most remarkable are the great temple of Krishna, and one of smaller dimensions dedicated to Ganesa, but containing a colossal granite image of that deity, sixteen feet high by ten in breadth. Beyond this is the fort entrance, a kind of inner city, containing the remains of four palaces, all within view of each other, built at different periods, and by different rajas. The temple of Rama is distinguished by its pillars of black hornblende which support the porticoes, and are covered with mythological sculptures of the minutest elegance. There are also some columns of the same material in a building near the river at Annagoondy.

But the most extraordinary of all the religious edifices, in respect to elaborate workmanship, dimensions, and freshness of condition, is the group dedicated to Wittoba (an incarnation of Vishnu) near the centre of the city, which has sustained no injury from time, although ransacked, and in parts dilapidated by Mahomedan rancour. They consist, besides the principal temple, of four subordinate buildings or choultries, and several lesser pagodas, the whole contained in an area of about 400 by 200 feet, environed by cells, and entered through a painted pyramidical portico. The columns are clustered with figures of the singh (lion), supporting the entablature, and, like the ceiling, covered with various sculptures; but the greatest curiosity is a rath, or native chariot, in which the image of the god is exposed on holidays. It is formed, wheels and all, entirely of granite, is complete in all its parts, and delicately finished, but probably was never intended for locomotion.

The site of Annagoondy, on the opposite bank of the Toombuddra, resembles that of Bijanagur. The approach to the city on this side is by a defile several miles in length, winding among the rocks, in some spots so narrow as barely to permit the passage of loaded cattle; formerly fortified at certain points, and closed by a gate. There are also the remains of another barrier gateway at a short distance beyond the city walls, and thence a passage under these lofty massive gateways still entire, before the centre of the place is reached. A similar line of fortification appears to have been partially extended between this division of the city and the river, for three other gateways must be passed in descending to the Toombuddra. The extent of Annagoondy from north to south is about a mile and a half, which space, like the site of Bijanagur, comprehends many fine religious edifices, sculptures of the Hindoo pantheon in relievo, and other architectural vestiges; but with the exception of a small village between the second and third gateway, built of stones collected from the ruins, it is wholly uninhabited. Near to this village is a temple of Krishna, at which worship is still performed, and which in 1820 was undergoing a thorough repair, at the expense of the reigning raja, who sometimes resides in a miserable hovel in

its vicinity, his principal habitation being at Camlapoor. In one of the ruins near the Toombuddra a specimen of a painted ceiling after the Indian manner is to be seen, the colours of which are still remarkably vivid.

The building of this metropolis was begun A.D. 1336, and completed in 1343, by Aka Hurryhur and Bucca Hurryhur, two brothers, the first of whom reigned until 1350, and the last until 1378. Their priest and prime minister was the learned Madhava Acharya. It was first named Vidyanagara, but afterwards Vijeyanagara, the city of victory. The Chola (Tanjore), the Chera, and the Pandian (Madura) dynasties were all conquered by Nursingh Raja and Krishna Raja of Bijanagur, in the period between 1490 and 1515. The kingdom was then called Bisnagar and Narsinga in old European maps, and comprehended the two Carnatics above and below the ghauts, when visited by Cæsar Frederick, who described the city as having a circuit of twenty-four miles, and containing within its walls many hills and pagodas.

A state of perpetual war subsisted between the Mahomedan sovereigns of the Deccan and this Hindoo empire, which at last terminated its existence. In A.D. 1564 the four Mahomedan Deccany kings of Ahmednuggur, Bejapoor, Golconda, and Beeder, combined, and totally discomfited Ram Raja, the reigning sovereign of Bijanagur, on the plains of Tellicotta, and afterwards advanced on the capital, which they took, and so completely sacked, that it was deserted by his successor, who retired to Pennaconda. About 1663 the Sree Rung Rayeel, or royal house of Bijanagur, became extinct, at least no more is heard of it subsequent to that era. Of the modern nominal rajas some details will be found under the article Annagoondy. The latter are said for many years to have kept, and still continue to keep, an exact register of all the revolutions in the Deccan and south of India, in the vain hope of being, by some future turn of the wheel, reinstated in their ancient possessions. — (*Fullarton, Wilks, Ferishta, Scott, &c.*)

Bijnee (*Bijni*).—A principality (named also Khungtaghaut) beyond the limits of Northern Hindostan, and confining on Assam, the possessions of which are situated on both sides of the Brahmaputra, and consist partly of independent territory, and partly of lands within the limits of British jurisdiction. Bijnee or Khungtaghaut is situated to the north of the great river, and Howeraghaut to the south, bordering on the Garrows.

Bijnee is a very extensive, beautiful, and, were it cultivated, would be a most valuable estate. Much of the level country is inundated, but there is also a great extent of land fit for the cultivation of transplanted rice. A considerable number of villages are consequently permanent, and have plantations of betel-nut and sugar-cane; but of the cultivators many are migratory, and on the least dispute withdraw to the conterminous territories of Bootan and Assam. Howeraghaut, the other division to the south of the Brahmaputra, is a still more valuable estate, being but partially flooded, and containing much excellent soil suited for the production of summer rice, wheat, barley, mustard-seed, pulse, betel, sugar-cane, and mulberry trees. It does not appear, however, that any silkworms are reared. The villages are stationary, and much neater than is usual in Bengal; and near the hills, where the streams are copious and perennial, some of the land returns annually two crops of transplanted rice.

After the Assam country declined to its late anarchical condition many natives withdrew to Howeraghaut, and many more, although they held lands in Assam, brought their families to the British side of the river, where they rented as much ground as sufficed for a house and garden. In this asylum the women and chil-

dren were deposited, while the men risked themselves and cattle in the Assamese territory, ready for a retreat in case of annoyance.

In consequence of their remote situation and the general wildness of the country, the history of the estates in this quarter was long but imperfectly known, even to the public functionaries at Rungpoor; and so long as the Bijnee Raja paid the customary tribute, no inquiry was made as to the state of the country, or even to ascertain the original nature of its connexion with the Mogul emperor, to whose authority the British government had succeeded. The notion so long prevalent, that the fort of Bijnee with a considerable tract of the circumjacent country lies beyond the Bengal boundary, was subsequently found to be quite erroneous, the Bijnee Raja having an evident interest in curtailing the extent of British influence. In the early surveys, Bijnee and Bidyagong, although entirely distinct, were confounded under the name of Bootan Bijnee, and the Bijnee estates were carried as far as the frontiers of Cooch Bahar. In 1785 the collector of Rungpoor was instructed to settle with the Rajas of Bijnee and Bidyagong for a certain payment in money, instead of the customary present of elephants, by which a loss was annually sustained, and 2,000 rupees were ultimately accepted as a compensation. In 1790 a succeeding and over-zealous collector prevailed on the raja to augment his tribute to 3,000 rupees: but the increase was rejected by the British government, which ordered the additional 1,000 rupees to be restored to the raja, who was entitled, if he chose, to resume his payment in elephants.

The peculiar circumstances of Bijnee appear to have been first brought to the notice of government about A.D.1791, in which year Mr.Douglas, the commissioner in Cooch Bahar, reported that Havindra Narrain, the zemindar of Bijnee, had been assassinated, and that he had directed the Naib of Rangamatty, in conjunction with the late zemindar's dewan, to take temporary charge of the property. Before an answer could arrive, the commissioner was informed by the Deb Raja of Bootan that he had nominated Mahindra Narrain (related to the defunct) to the vacant throne, the friendship between him (the Deb Raja) and the Honourable East-India Company rendering his appointment quite the same as if it had been made at Calcutta. He was soon apprized, however, that so precipitate and informal a proceeding could on no account be sanctioned; but in the mean time Mahindra Narrain having got a party of Bootanners from one of the Deb Raja's governors, entered Bijnee, and there committed a variety of outrages. At this time the only connexion that subsisted between Bootan and Bijnee consisted of a sort of exchange of the productions of the two countries, which the Bootan functionaries were pleased to describe as the payment of a tribute, the advantage being considerably in their favour.

The result of the investigation was, that the Bengal government determined that the right of investiture to the zemindarry belonged to them; but as the candidate brought forward by the Deb Raja appeared to have the best founded pretensions, his choice was confirmed, and his protégé nominated to the succession.

The Bijnee chief also holds lands in Assam; but the British government assert the right of investiture to his own hereditary zemindarry. In 1809 the two divisions of Bijnee Proper and Howeraghaut were estimated to contain 32,400 ploughs, each of which ought, on an average, to have paid the raja five rupees per annum, besides customs, duties, forests, fishings, pastures, and all manner of illicit and irregular exactions; yet his poverty was such that he was accustomed once in three years to raise some additional money by absolute begging, which however conveys no degrading idea to a Hindoo. He formerly paid his tribute in elephants, but as few survived, and were seldom

of a good size, a value was put on the number, and the amount as above-mentioned taken in money. The Bootan tribute is principally paid in dried fish. One half of his rents are paid in coarse cotton cloth woven by the females of the tenantry, on which the raja suffers great loss. His affairs, as may be supposed, are extremely ill-managed, and his property plundered by needy retainers from the south and the west, who harass the cultivators by unjust exactions and ruin the commerce by their iniquitous monopolies. Being one of the highest chiefs of the Cooch tribe, almost every cultivator under him is called a rajbungsi; but they are divided into two kinds: the Bhakat or worshippers of Krishna, and the Gorami, who eat pork and unutterable food, and openly abandon themselves to strong drink. Raja Bolit Narrain reigned in 1809, and was reckoned the seventh from the founder of the family.—(*Sirrcn, F. Buchanan, Wade, Turner, &c.*)

Bijnee.—The capital of the above-mentioned principality, situated twenty-five miles east from Goalpara, in Bengal; lat. 26° 29′ N., lon. 89° 47′ E. The fort or castle of Bijnee is defended by a brick wall, and is 320 cubits long by 160 broad, and in the form of a parallelogram. On the outside is a ditch and strong hedge of the prickly bamboo, and in each face there is a gate; but in 1809 there were not any doors by which the gate might be shut. The area is divided into an outer and inner apartment, in which the raja's females dwell. It is also surrounded by a brick wall, which includes a small brick house erected by a servant from Dacca; but up to the date above-mentioned the raja had never entered it, lest it should fall and kill him. There are also a few small brick temples for household gods, and about one hundred thatched huts.

The town of Bijnee, where the raja resides, and from whence he derives his title, is described as a sort of neutral ground. To the English the raja says it belongs to Bootan, and to the Bootanners he represents it as British property: so that although he has a guard of Booteas, and some sepoys whom he probably represents as British, the officers of neither government interfere at Bijnee. Here (in 1809) he was accustomed to harbour lawless persons, especially a certain Mahomedan jemadar, whose men, under the name of Burkindauzes (lightning-throwers), ravaged Assam, and made havoc in that unfortunate and besotted country.

The reigning raja in 1809 had a four-wheeled carriage constructed after the European fashion, and also a superb palanquin, besides some glass furniture. He kept two male elephants for the accommodation of his deity, and four female ones on which he occasionally rode, but which were more frequently employed to catch wild ones for sale. His band of music consisted of two drums, one fife, and one hautboy of the native fashion. Besides other servants, he had fifty male and seventy female slaves. The detail of his manner of living may be given as conveying an idea of the mode of life and customs of a native prince unadulterated by European intercourse.

The raja was then (1809) thirty years of age, and had been taught to read and write the polite dialect of Bengal. He had only two wives and two concubines. He usually rose about noon, and occupied one hour in cleaning himself and smoking tobacco. At one o'clock his officers were admitted into a hut near the gate in the outer apartments, and received audience seated on the bare ground, while the raja sat on a low stool, and was rubbed with oil, which unction occupied an hour. He then prayed for a short time, after which he went to the interior to eat such food as his aunt, in whose affection he could confide, had prepared for him. This employed another hour, and was succeeded by a short nap, which occupied about the same space of time.

After this the Bijnee potentate

was accustomed to emerge, and make his appearance in a large hut, where any pundit who happened to be at hand detailed to him the news and scandal of the day, or read some poetry to him in the vulgar tongue. At sunset he again prayed, and then the pundits, his officers, or any facetious person disposed to be pleasant, talked to him until midnight. After this he retired to the female apartments to eat and talk with them until daylight, for he had been so alarmed by the fate of his uncle and predecessor, that through the whole night he never ventured to sleep. Once a month he took the air in his carriage, or on an elephant, or horseback, or in a palanquin, but he never ventured beyond the bounds of his estate, nor had he ever been visited by any person of a rank approaching to his own.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bijore (*Bajawer*).—A small subdivision of the Sewad province, situated principally between the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Bijore is in length twenty-five coss, and in breadth from five to ten coss. On the east lies Sewad, on the north Kenore and Cashgur, on the south Beckram, and on the west Guznoorgul. The air of this district resembles that of Sewad, excepting that the heat and cold are rather more severely felt here. It has only three roads: one leading to Hindostan called Danishcote, and two that go to Cabul, one of which is named Summej, and the other Guznoorgul. Danishcote is the best road. Adjoining to Bijore, and confined by the mountains of Cabul and Sinde, is a desert measuring in length thirty coss, and in breadth twenty-five coss."

The modern district of Bijore is an undulating plain, about twenty-five miles from east to west, and twelve from north to south, and resembles the plain of Peshawer, which it equals in fertility, the principal produce being wheat. The two chief towns, Bijore (or Bajour), and Mawagye, each contain about 1,000 houses. The contiguous forests are so thick as to exclude the sun and almost the rain. Bijore belongs to the Afghan tribe of Turcolani, but it has also other inhabitants, the upper hills being peopled by Caffries; the lower by Hindikees, and the plain by a mixture of all nations under the general denomination of Roadbaurees. The town of Bijore stands in lat. 34° 47′ N., lon. 71° 14′ E.; fifty-five miles N.N.W. from Peshawer.

A tradition long existed, that this district had at one period been inhabited by a certain tribe who claimed descent from the army of Alexander the Great; but the inquiries of Mr. Elphinstone, in 1809, did not tend to confirm the rumour, although their neighbours the Caffries, in the mountains north of Bijore, present many points of semblance. The reported colony was celebrated by the adjacent Asiatics for their beauty and European complexion, their worshipping of idols, drinking wine out of silver cups and vases, using chairs and tables, and speaking a language unintelligible to their neighbours. The Emperor Baber says in his Memoirs (about A D. 1520), that as the men of Bijore were rebels to Islam, and followed the usages and customs of the infidels, even the name of Islam being extirpated among them, he put them all to the sword, and made their wives and children prisoners; but he does not mention what other religion or superstition they followed.—(*Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, Baber, &c.*)

Bikkur.—A town in the province of Allahabad, forty-five miles S.S.E. from Gualior; lat. 25° 46′ N., lon. 78° 30′ E.

Billeton.—A rocky sterile island in the eastern seas, situated about the third degree of north latitude, between Sumatra and Borneo. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by forty-five the average breadth. Iron ore, generally a scarce fossil in all tropical countries, is here abundant, and the metal procured

from it is said to be of an excellent quality. Some of it is manufactured on the spot into nails and tools for exportation; and it is from hence that the Malays procure much of their iron and steel. In 1812, after the conquest of Palembang, the new sultan ceded this island to the British, but it does not appear to have ever been taken possession of. The armed cruizers stationed in these seas, and the re-establishment of the Dutch authority in Billeton, in conjunction with the arrangements entered into with the Sultans of Lingen and Rhio, had, prior to 1826, greatly reduced the extent of piracy in this part of the archipelago.—(*Crawfurd, Thorn, &c.*)

Billawul.—A town on the sea-coast of the Gujerat peninsula, twenty-nine miles N.W. from Diu; lat. 20° 53′ N., lon. 70° 34′ E.

Billounjah.—A small district in the province of Gundwana, extending along the south bank of the Sone river, and bounded on the east by the zemindary of Palamow, in Bahar. The principal towns, or rather villages, are Oontarree and Ranka, and the whole tract is comprehended within the pale of British protection.

Bilsa (*Bilvesa*).—A large town in the province of Malwa belonging to Sindia, situated on the east side of the Betwa, near its junction with the river Bess, thirty-two miles N.E. from Bopaul; lat. 23° 33′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and in 1820 contained 5,000 houses. Bilsah was first conquered by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1230, and again in 1292. The adjacent country is celebrated all over India for the excellent quality of the tobacco it produces, which is eagerly bought up and exported. It belongs to Sindia, and in 1817 was rented for 40,000 rupees; in 1821, after the restoration of tranquillity, it yielded two and a half lacks of rupees.—(*Hunter, Malcolm, &c.*)

Bima.—A town on the island of Sumbhawa, situated at the east end, and comprehending under its jurisdiction the straits of Sapy, the whole of Mangeray, and the island of Goonong Api. The Bima language extends over the eastern division of Sumbhawa, and the western portion of the island was denominated Floris by the early Portuguese navigators.

Bimlipatam (*Bhimalapatana*).—A small seaport town in the northern circars, sixteen miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam; lat. 17° 53′ N., lon. 83° 34′ E. A considerable trade is carried on from hence in native craft, and the traces of a Dutch fort still remain. A few tolerable European houses stand near the beach, and a temple on the declivity of a mountain that bounds the town to the south. In 1819 an old Dutch functionary continued in charge of the factory.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bindrabund (*Vrindavana*).—A large town in the province of Agra, situated on the west bank of the Jumna, thirty-five miles N.N.W. from the city of Agra; lat. 27° 34′ N., lon. 77° 34′ E. The name Vrindavana signifies a grove of tulsi trees, and the place is famous for having been the scene of the youthful sports of Krishna, to whom many temples still existing were dedicated. Some of these are remarkable for their style of architecture, and the great cruciform pagoda is certainly one of the most elaborate and massy works of Brahminical superstition. Besides these there are several sacred pools, distinguished by the names of Radha, Syama, and Jeyacha, where the pilgrims perform their ablutions and wash away their sins. A flight of steps leading to the river is much revered, as having been the spot where Krishna defeated a serpent of large dimensions; and a cadamba tree, as the place where he used to sit and play on the flute, the marks of which are still perceptible among the branches. Different parts of the woods are pointed out as the haunts of Krishna, Radha, and the milkmaids, and others as the residence of ancient Hindoo saints and sages; but are now, as they probably were formerly, the dens of religious men-

dicants (chobees), existing in filth and idleness.—(*Ward, Turner, Fullarton, &c.*)

Binsur Temple.—A small math or temple in Northern Hindostan, thirteen miles S. by E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 4′ N., lon. 78° 40′ E.

Bintang.—An island (thus named by Europeans) lying off the south-eastern extremity of Malacca, about the first degree of north latitude, surrounded by innumerable small rocky isles and islets. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by eighteen the average breadth. The chief town is Rhio, formerly a port of considerable trade.

Birbhoom (*Virabhumi, the land of heroes*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated on the north-western extremity, about the twenty-fourth degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of Boglipoor, on the south by Burdwan and the Jungle Mahals; to the east it has Rajeshahy, and on the west Boglipoor and the Jungle Mahals. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is named Sircar Madarun, and in 1814 it was estimated to contain 7,000 square miles, a considerable portion of it hilly, jungly, and thinly inhabited.

The most important articles produced in this district are rice, sugar, and silk. Coal has been discovered of so good a quality that it now supplies the Calcutta forges, and is carried to sea as ship stock. Iron ore is also found, not in veins, but in strata mixed with clay, whence it is dug. It is very rich in the metal, but cannot compete in cheapness with European iron, as was proved from an experiment instituted by government in 1814. The cultivation and population of Birbhoom are gradually increasing: but the absence of navigable streams is a great impediment to the extension of its commerce. Roads and bridges are consequently more attended to, mostly kept in order by the government convicts. The number of native iron forges in Birbhoom and Boglipoor, together with the supply required for Moorshedabad and the adjacent towns, renders the demand for fuel more considerable than usual in Bengal; but the extent of forest throughout the province is immense, and its power of reproduction rapid. In Birbhoom, besides the coal, there are large forests lying close to the forges, which occasion the greatest consumption.

When first acquired by the British, this was the largest Mahomedan zemindary in the province, and was originally conferred on Assud Ullah, who was allowed to settle here about the time of Shere Shah, for the political purpose of guarding the frontier of the west against the incursions of the barbarous Hindoo tribes of Jeharcund. A warlike Mahomedan militia were entertained as a standing army, with suitable territorial allotments, under a principal landholder of the same faith. In some respects it corresponded with the ancient military fiefs of Europe, certain lands being exempted from rent, and solely appropriated to the maintenance of the troops. This privilege was resumed by Cossim Ali in 1763, and under existing circumstances is become still more unnecessary. So late as 1814 an arrangement was made with the ghautwalls, or petty hill chiefs, of the western jungles, to secure their own abstinence from plundering, and also their assistance towards the suppression of robberies perpetrated by others. Highway depredations are frequent, chiefly committed on Hindoo pilgrims journeying through the forests to the sanctuary at Baidyanath, where there is a celebrated temple dedicated to Siva, and it is probable that many of these robberies are accompanied by murders, the knowledge of which never reaches the police officers. The head-quarters of the judicial establishment are at Soory, which is the residence of the magistrate. In 1801 the population of Birbhoom was estimated at 700,000, in the proportion of thirty Hindoos to one Mahomedan.—(*J. Grant, Po-*

lice Reports, Colebrooke, Fullarton, D. Campbell, Cowell, &c.)

BIRCHA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, principality of Ditteah, thirty-two miles N.N.E. from the town of Ditteah; lat. 26° 7′ N., lon. 78° 39′ E.

BIRMANGYDROOG.—A hill fort in the territories of the Mysore Raja, situated about ten miles W. by S. from the town of Sera.

BISANO.—A small island in the Eastern seas, twenty miles in circumference, lying off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes; lat. 2° 5′ N., lon. 125° 5′ E.

BISRAMGHAUT.—A pass or road over a range of mountains near Adjyghur, leading from Callinjer to Pannah. It is a mile in length, and of very difficult ascent for artillery or wheeled carriages.

BISSOLEE *(Visavali)*.—A town in the province of Lahore, situated on the north-west bank of the Ravey, here about 120 yards broad at the lowest, and very rapid, being so near the hills; lat. 32° 5′ N., lon. 75° 5′ E., forty-two miles N.N.E. from Amritsir. From Belaspoor fertile vallies, though not wide, extend to Bissolee, where high hills commence, which extend with little interruption to Cashmere. In 1783 this town was fortified, and commanded the entrance to the hills, but at that date both town and district were tributary to the Jamboe Rajpoots, as they are at present to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore.—*(Foster, &c.)*

BISSOLIE *(Visavali)*.—A town in the province of Delhi, thirty-one miles west from Bareily; lat. 28° 19′ N., lon. 78° 46′ E. During the early reigns of the Mogul emperors Bissolie flourished, and its prosperity continued under the Rohillahs, but it is now in comparison waste and desolate. Several of the family of Mahomed Ali, the Rohillah founder, are buried here.

BISSUNPOOR *(Vishnapura)*.—An ancient town in the province of Bengal, seventy-seven miles N.W. from Calcutta; lat 23° 4′ N., lon. 87° 25′ E. This place is situated in a tract of ferruginous soil, which rises here about thirty feet above the alluvial gangetic plains, and continues with little interruption to the margin of the adjacent hills. It is still a considerable town, and much frequented as a mart by the inhabitants of the jungle mahals and Ramghur districts, to interchange their commodities for the productions of the plains. The old fort where the Raja resides has been a work of considerable strength and magnificence, as is proved by the remains of massy stone gateways, pagodas, and other decayed buildings within its ramparts. For about eight miles to the east the country is covered with a thick palass jungle. Formerly Bissunpoor was the chief town of a large and ancient zemindary, in 1784 containing 1,256 square miles; but a small portion now remains to the Raja, nearly the whole having been sold or attached for unliquidated arrears.—*(Fullarton, J. Grant, &c.)*

BITORAH.—A village in the province and district of Allahabad, situated on the right bank of the Ganges about sixty miles south from Lucknow, where the joint magistrate for the Futtehpoor division of the zillah usually resides.

BITTOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, nine miles N. by W. from Cawnpoor. This place has been selected for the residence of Bajerow, ex-Peshwa of the Maharattas. The British civil station was in 1820 removed from hence to Cawnpore, and the public buildings appropriated for the accommodation of himself and followers, and others erected for the same purpose.—*(Fullarton, &c.)*

BISWAH *(Viswa)*.—A town in the Oude territories, forty-three miles north from Lucknow; lat. 27° 28′ N., lon. 80° 6′ E.

BLACK PAGODA.—See KANARAK.

BLACKWOOD'S HARBOUR.—A new harbour named after Sir H. Blackwood, lately discovered on the coast of Coromandel, situated to the north

of Point Poondy, and sheltered from the eastward by the Armegon shoal. It is about forty-six miles from Madras roads, and bears from the flag-staff at Fort George about N. 50° E. The surf is here so moderate, that for four or five days in the week a ship's yawl may land with safety, and it is not at any time so violent as on the adjacent coasts. During the N. E. monsoon the sea breaks high on the Armegon shoal, and consequently renders the anchorage within comparatively smooth.—(*Maxfield, &c.*)

BLAMBANGAN.—A small division in the island of Java, situated at the eastern extremity, which down to a comparatively late period was subject to the Balinese, and chiefly inhabited by that people. In A.D. 1588 Thomas Cavendish, the circumnavigator, touched at Blambangan.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

BLELLING *(or Boleeling)*.—A principal town in the island of Bally, the Raja of which having permitted his troops to attack, in 1814, a British post at Banywangi, in Java (where they were routed), an expedition then proceeding to Celebes under General Nightingale, was ordered to call at Bally and exact satisfaction. The expedition terminated without the necessity of proceeding to hostilities by the submission of the Raja: but a British garrison continued to occupy for some time the town and crattan (or citadel) of Blelling.—(*Thorn, Crawfurd, &c.*)

BO *(or Hod)*.—A cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, lying E.S.E. from the southern extremity of Gilolo. They are inhabited, and supplies of cocoa-nuts, salt, and dried fish may be procured here.

BOAD *(Bodha)*.—A large fenced village in the province of Orissa, situated on the south side of the Mahanuddy river, which at this place in the month of October is one mile and a half broad; lat. 20° 32′ N, lon. 84° 10′ E., 124 miles west from Cuttack. The face of the country in this neighbourhood is mountainous, interspersed with valleys from four to sixteen miles in circumference. The villages are fenced with bamboos to protect the inhabitants and their cattle from wild beasts, and in the fields the women are seen holding the plough, while the female children drive the oxen. The Boad estate commands one of the principal passes into the Cuttack district, and the best road to Nagpoor and Gurrah Mundlah is through Boad.

This is an extensive zemindary, reaching almost to Goomsur, through one of the wildest tracts of woods (abounding with teak) and mountains in India, scantily inhabited by savage Gonds, who acknowledge subordination to the Raja, but pay no revenue. He had been expelled by the Berar Mahrattas who garrisoned his fort, but he was restored by the British, and his money assessment, on account of the miserable condition of his country, reduced to 2,000 rupees.—(*Roughsedge, 1st Reg., &c.*)

BOADJOOS *(or Biajoos)*.—See BORNEO.

BOBEENA.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, seventeen miles S. by W. from Jansi; lat. 25° 15′ N., lon. 78° 24′ E.

BOBILEE.—A town and zemindary in the northern Circars, thirty-five degrees W.N.W. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 25′, lon. 83° 31′ E. In 1757 the first in rank of the polygars of this country was Rangaroo of Bobilee. His fort stood about sixty miles N.E. of Vizagapatam, close to the mountains, the dependent zemindary being about twenty square miles. There had long been a deadly hatred between this polygar and Vizeram Rauze, an adjacent polygar, whose person, how much soever he feared his power, Rangaroo held in the utmost contempt, as of low extraction, and of no note. Vizeram Rauze persuaded the French commander M. Bussy to espouse his side of the quarrel; and the latter not foreseeing the terrible event to which he was proceeding, determined to reduce the

whole country, and to expel the polygar and his family.

A polygar, besides his other towns and forts, has always one situated in the most difficult part of his country, which is intended for the last refuge for himself and all his blood. The singular construction of this fort is adequate to all the intentions of defence, among a people unused to cannon, or the means of regular battery. Its outline is a regular square, which rarely exceeds 200 yards; a round tower is raised at each of the angles, and a square projection in the middle of each of the sides. The height of the wall is generally twenty-two feet, but the rampart within only twelve, which is likewise its breadth at the top, although it is much broader at the bottom. The whole is of tempered clay, raised in distinct layers, of which each is left exposed to the sun, until thoroughly hardened before the next is applied. The parapet rises ten feet above the rampart, and is only three feet thick. It is indented five feet down from the top, in interstices six inches wide, which are three feet asunder. A foot above the bottom of these interstices and battlements runs a line of round holes, another two feet lower, and a third two feet from the rampart. These holes are usually formed with pipes of baked clay, and serve for the employment of fire-arms, arrows, and lances. The interstices are for the freer use of these arms, instead of loop-holes, which cannot be inserted or cut in the clay.

The towers of the square projection in the middle have the same parapet as the rest of the wall, and in two of the projections in the opposite sides of the fort are gateways, of which the entrance is not in front, but on one side, from whence it is continued through half the mass, and then turns by a right angle into the place. On any alarm the whole passage is choked up with trees, and the outside surrounded, to some distance, with a strong bed of thick brambles. The rampart and parapet is covered by a shed of strong thatch, supported by posts; the eves of this shed project over the battlement. This shed affords shelter to those on the rampart, and guards it against the sun and rain. An area of 500 yards or more, in every direction round the fort, is preserved clear, of which the circumference joins the high wood, which is kept thick, three or four miles in breadth, around this centre. Few of these forts permit more than one path through the woods. The entrance of the path from without is defended by a wall exactly similar in construction and strength to one of the sides of the fort, having its round towers at the ends, and the square projection in the middle.

From natural sagacity, they never raise this redoubt on the edge of the wood, but at the bottom of a recess cleared on purpose; and on each side of the recess raise a breast-work of earth, or a hedge, from whence to gall the approach. The path admits of only three men a-breast, winds continually, is every where commanded by breast-works in the thicket, and has in its course several redoubts similar to that of the entrance, and, like that, flanked by breast-works on each hand. Such were the defences of Bobilee, which are given at length as a specimen of all polygar forts; against which M. Bussy marched with 750 Europeans, of whom 250 were horse, four field-pieces, and 11,000 peons and sepoys, the army of Vizeram Rauze, who commanded them in person.

The attack commenced at daybreak on the 24th of January 1757, with the field-pieces against the four towers, and by nine o'clock several of the battlements were broken. All the leading parties of the four divisions then advanced at the same time with scaling ladders; but, after much endeavour for an hour, not a man had been able to get on the parapet, and many had fallen wounded. Other parties followed with little success, until all were so fatigued that a cessation was ordered, during which the field-pieces, having beaten down more of the parapet, gave the second

attack greater advantage; but the ardour of the defence increased with the danger. The garrison fought with the indignant ferocity of wild beasts defending their dens and families, and several of them stood as in defiance on the top of the battlements, and endeavoured to grapple with the first ascendants, hoping, with them, to twist the ladders down, and this failing, stabbed with their lances; but being wholly exposed, were easily shot by aim from the rear of the escalade. The assailants admired, for no European had seen such excess of courage in the natives of Hindostan, and continually offered quarter, which was always answered by menace and intention of death. Not a man had gained the rampart at two in the afternoon, and another cessation of attack ensued. On this Rangaroo assembled the principal men, and told them there was no hopes of maintaining the fort; and that it was immediately necessary to perserve their wives and children from the violation of the Europeans, and the still more ignominious authority of Vizeram Rauze.

A number called without distinction were allotted to the work. They proceeded every man with his lance, a torch, and his poinard, to the habitations in the middle of the fort, to which they set fire indiscriminately, plying the flame with straw prepared with pitch or brimstone, and every man stabbed, without remorse, the woman or child, whichsoever attempted to escape the flame and suffocation. The massacre being finished, those who accomplished it returned like men agitated by the furies, to die themselves on the walls.

Mr. Law, who commanded one of the divisions, observed, while looking at the conflagration, that the number of defenders was considerably diminished, and advanced again to the attack. After several ladders had failed, a few grenadiers got over the parapet, and maintained their footing in the tower, until they obtained more secure possession. Rangaroo hastening to the defence of the tower, was killed by a musket ball. His fall increased the desperation of his adherents, who crowding to revenge his death, left other parts of the rampart bare. The other divisions of the French troops having advanced, numbers on all sides got over the parapet without opposition; nevertheless none of the defenders quitted the rampart, or would accept quarter, but each advancing against, or struggling with, an adversary, would resign his poinard only with death.

The slaughter of the conflict being over, another much more dreadful presented itself in the area below. The transport of victory lost all its joy; all gazed on each other with silent astonishment and remorse, and the fiercest could not refuse a tear to the destruction spread before them. Four of the soldiers of Rangaroo, on seeing him fall, concealed themselves in an unfrequented part of the fort until night was far advanced; when they dropped down from the walls, and speaking the same language, passed unsuspected through the quarters of Vizeram Rauze. They concealed themselves in the thicket, and the third night after, two of them crawled into the tent of Vizeram Rauze, and stabbed him in thirty-two places, and were immediately cut to pieces. Had they failed, the other two remaining in the jungle were bound by the same oath to perform the deed, or perish in the attempt.—(*Orme, &c.*)

Bodur.—A village of considerable extent in the province of Candeish, about forty miles travelling distance S.S.W. from Boorhanpoor. It is of considerable extent, but in 1819 was in a very decayed condition.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bodytunrayadroog.—A stupendous fortified mountain in the Barramahal province, situated about six miles west from Cavrypatam.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Boggah.—A town in the province of Bahar, situated on the east side of the Gunduck river, about 120

miles N.N.W. from Patna; lat. 27° 4′ N., lon. 84° 13′ E. A great tract of country to the north of this place is still covered with primeval forests, from which excellent timber for ship building is procured, and floated down the Gunduck and Ganges to Calcutta.

Bogariah.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Boglipoor, 130 miles N.W. from Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 53′ N., lon. 86° 52′ E.

Boghela *(or Baghelcund)*.—A district in the province of Gundwana, but during the reign of Aurengzebe annexed by edict to the province of Allahabad, although it never was actually subdued by his forces. The produce of the country is wheat, barley, and different kinds of peas, and the inhabitants possess large flocks of cattle and sheep. There is, however, but little cultivation, the natives scarcely raising grain enough for their own subsistence. A portion of this territory is tributary to the British government, and the whole is under its protection. The principal towns are Bandoogur and Muckondabad.

Boglipoor *(Bhagelpoor)*.—A district in the province of Bahar, where it is situated between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude, occupying the south-eastern corner of that province, together with a small section from Bengal. On the north it is bounded by the districts of Tirhoot and Purneah; on the south by Ramghur and Birbhoom; to the east it has Purneah and Moorshedabad; and to the west Bahar and Ramghur. Its greatest length, from the boundaries of Birbhoom on the Dwaraca, to that of Tirhoot on the Tilaw, is about 133 miles in a N.N.W. and S.S.E. direction, and its greatest breadth, crossing the above line at right angles, is about eighty miles. By tracing the boundaries on Major Rennel's map, Dr. F. Buchanan estimated its contents at about 8,225 square miles.

In 1784 this district, then denominated Monghir, contained in all its dimensions 8,270 square miles, of which only 2,817 were in the Boglipoor division, on both sides of the Ganges; and the whole territorial outline still continues very unsatisfactory, except where final decisions of the courts of justice have determined the disputed boundaries of the different zemindaries. The modern capital is situated towards one of its extremities, and the whole section which is beyond the capital towards the north is separated from it by the Ganges, which is attended with much inconvenience and some danger.

The hills of Boglipoor, in a few parts, compose regular chains of considerable length, in most parts there being passages, at very short intervals, through which a traveller might penetrate without any great ascent; but in the most hilly parts these apertures have been allowed by the natives to be choked up with trees to protect their strongholds in former times. In the great cluster near Rajamahal, the hills, notwithstanding the ruggedness of the soil, are tolerably well occupied. In other clusters the hills are entirely waste. Many parts of the western cluster would admit of cultivation, and some have been tilled by the mountaineers; but the encouragement of the latter is very doubtful policy, and the inhabitants of the plain will on no account cultivate the hills, lest the purity of their birth should be suspected. The whole of these clusters, and even the hills of Rajamahal, compose, in the opinion of the natives, a part of the Vindhyan mountains. Besides the hilly tracts, there is a considerable extent of swelling ground divided into two portions, that exempted from the influence of the Ganges, and that liable to be affected by its floods.

The streams that flow into the Ganges from the south side, differ greatly from those to the north of that river. Although the channels of some of them are of great width, none of them in this district are at

any time navigable, except in the eastern corner, where, during the floods, the water of the Ganges filling the lower part of their beds, renders them penetrable for small boats. Even the largest of them, having channels from 200 to 400 yards broad, are in general fordable throughout the rainy season, at which period, however, several of them are deep enough to assist in floating down bamboos and timber.

In the dry season, it is chiefly near their sources that these rivers contain any visible stream, and then each of the small branches appears to contain a greater quantity of water, than the vast channel worn by the united force of these torrents, when swollen by the periodical rains. In spring the widest channels appear perfectly dry sand, but by digging a foot or two deep, good water may at all times be procured; and this subterraneous water has in some cases a sort of current, as canals dug across the channel collect a small stream. Above Monghir the Ganges forms the boundary between Boglipoor and Tirhoot. The principal rivers south of the Ganges, are the Keyul, the Maura, the Ulayi, the Nagini (female serpent), the Augjana, which last river having been impregnated by Pavana (Eolus) the god of the winds, produced Hunimaun (Pan), the prince of monkies (Satyri), and the prime minister and companion of the great Rama (Bacchus). The others are the Nacti, the Baghdar (tiger-catcher), the Ghorghat, the Mohané, the Baruya, the Bilasi, the Dobee, and the Mooteejharna, or pearl stream, which falls down a precipice four miles south from Sicrygully.

The pieces of stagnant water may be divided into jeels, that contain water throughout the year, and the chaongre, which dry up during the cold season. Some of the jeels are evidently the old channels of large rivers, which at both ends have lost all communication with the stream, but are so filled with water during the periodical rains, that even in spring they do not become dry. The principal jeels, however, are low lands, which collect a great quantity of water from floods and torrents, and never become dry. The most conspicuous of these is Domjala, south from Rajamahal, which in the rainy season is seven and a half miles long by three and a half broad, and in the dry season four miles by one and a half.

Certain places of the fourth, or northern intermediate division, are found covered with carbonate of soda, called by the natives kurwa mati, and collected occasionally by the washermen of the vicinity. The most remarkable spot is in Hebipoor, about ten miles west of Pointy, on the edge of the plain inundated by the Ganges, and extends about fifty yards in one direction, by thirty in the other. During the flood, this place is completely inundated by the Ganges for three or four days; but in the month of October the saline matter begins to effloresce on the surface, which is covered with short grass. The washermen scrape the surface, and beat the saline matter from among the roots, which operation may be repeated; but in the rainy season, even when the spot is not covered with water, no saline matter is procurable. By digging to a very small depth clear water is obtained, notwithstanding the saline nature of the surface.

South winds are very uncommon in Boglipoor, east and west winds being most prevalent for a great portion of the year. The former begin about the middle of June, and the latter about the middle of February, so that the east winds last double the time of those from the west, but they blow with less violence; many remarkable deviations, however, take place. The winters are less cold than in Purneah; and the heats of spring, when the winds are westerly, very severe, these winds being hot and parchingly dry, and the hills are no where of a sufficient height to reduce the temperature of the atmosphere.

In this district there is a great variety of surface, but, on the whole,

the portions of it fit for the plough appear rich, and capable of being rendered productive. A considerable extent is occupied by mere rock, totally incapable of cultivation; and a still greater space is covered with fragments of rock of various sizes. On the hills these masses are so large and numerous, that, could the plough be used, on account of the declivity, the nature of the ground would render its agency impracticable. It has been estimated that in woods, thickets of bushes, and deserted villages, which have become totally wild, there are 1,731 square miles of land sufficiently level for the plough, and that there are 1,146 square miles of hills that are covered with woods, including the ground covered with tamarisks; therefore there are in all, for forests and thickets, almost 3,100 square miles; by far the greater part of which is kept, owing to various causes in a very stunted condition. The teak tree has been planted near Boglipoor by some gentlemen, but it has not thriven. In many parts of the southern central division iron ore has been found, but generally in such small masses, that it would not answer for European manufacture. The most noted hot spring is at Seetacoond, near the town of Monghir, and there is another at Bhurka, six miles south from Seetacoond. The finest hot spring is at Bheembund, about seventeen miles south from Bhurka, in which, on the 21st March 1810, the thermometer stood at 144 Fahrenheit; but there are many others of various temperatures.

The rent-free lands in this district are very considerable, and abstract greatly from the revenue, as it is usually the best soil, and situated in the most populous parts of the country. Another burthen has tended to reduce the revenue of this large territory to an insignificant sum, which is the assignment of lands to invalid soldiers as part of their subsistence, and a reward for their services. It has, however, been found, after an enormous expenditure, that the expectation of rendering this a comfortable provision for the veteran was fallacious, and the plan has been most judiciously abandoned. For the future, the invalids will be rewarded with money, which is much better suited to their habits and infirmities, less expensive, and more easily regulated. The whole land purchased by government on account of invalids, amounts to 234,000 Calcutta begas, which may be converted into three zemindaries. The existing zemindars, notwithstanding the indulgence that has been shewn them in the revenue assessment, in 1810, had not the least confidence in the perpetual settlement made in 1794, and had recourse to every stratagem to conceal their profits, which, where any pains had been taken to cultivate the land, was probably enormous. In 1814 the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to only 3,85,916 rupees, and the abkarry, or tax on spirituous liquors, to 44,569 rupees.

The most destructive of the wild quadrupeds, or rather of the wild four-handed animals, is the Hunimaun (a species of baboon), an animal held so sacred by the Hindoos, that it is reckoned almost as great a sin to kill a cow as one of this genus; such an action is reckoned extremely unlucky, and the same evil fortune attends its bones, which, if buried under a house, render its owner and inhabitants unfortunate. The discovery of such bones, and the ascertaining that no such are concealed where the erection of a house is contemplated, forms one of the arts of the Jyotish, or astronomical philosophers of India. It is probably owing to this apprehension of ill luck that no native will acknowledge his having seen a dead hunimaun: for it can scarcely be supposed that the animals conceal their dead, as many of the natives believe. The short-tailed monkey (ratuya) is also common: but being less sacred, is not permitted to take such liberties with the crop as his long-tailed brother, the hunimaun, is indulged in; his bones, however, are equally unlucky, and persons who have long frequented the woods, will

no more allow that they have seen a dead ratuya than a dead hunimaun.

The black bear is found in the woods, and does little harm, although they occasionally kill a man; but they rarely attack cattle. Another species is called by the natives the hard bear (because it may be beaten very much without being killed). These animals live in pairs or families, and subsist on frogs, white ants, and other insects, which they dig up; but they have never been detected digging up graves, or eating dead carcases, as is reported by the natives.

The drains on population in this district are not great; yet after so long a peace, and with so much unoccupied territory, the increase of inhabitants is not so great as might have been expected. In 1810 the total number of Mahomedans within the limits of the jurisdiction were estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 460,000, the Hindoos at 1,559,900, making a total for the whole district of 2,019,900 persons. The Monghir and Surjegurry pergunnahs are overflowing with inhabitants, yet the surplus cannot be persuaded to settle in the adjacent wastes of Mallepoor. The following are the principal towns, besides Rajamahal, which contains 25,000 inhabitants.

	Houses.
Boglipoor	5,000
Champanagur	1,500
Nathnagur	900
Serasin	500
Surjegurry.....	500
Arjunginge	500
Caligunge	600
Atapoor.....	500
Colgong.....	400

Besides Monghir and Oudanulla there are the remains of a considerable number of brick and mud fortresses, some of which, belonging to the Cunsickpoor and Ghiddore families, were destroyed by Capt. Brooke, who was sent to reduce the chiefs to subordination during the government of Mr. Hastings. The best-looking modern edifices are the indigo factories. Real slaves of the male sex are here called nufur, and their women laundies; they may be sold in whatever manner the master chooses; but they are not often brought to market, and are all either of the Dhanak or Rawani castes. The slaves here are in general industrious, seldom run away, and are rarely beaten. Prostitutes are few in number, and mostly of the Mahomedan religion. The general character of the inhabitants of the district is far superior to that of the south-eastern natives of Bengal; and one magistrate, in his report to government, declares that, in comparison with the people of Backergunge, they may be termed saints.

Boglipoor is a remarkable thoroughfare for travellers, both by land and water, who expend a great deal of money in the purchase of necessaries, such as rice, pulse, salt, oil, seasoning, fire-wood, tobacco, and betel. Upon an average, it may be estimated that one hundred boats stop daily at Rajamahal, besides those at Pointy, Colgong, Sultangunge, Surjegurry, Boglipoor, and Monghir; while by land multitudes of pilgrims, troops, and European travellers are continually passing. The East-India Company's dealings, however, in this district are inconsiderable, consisting of a little silk, Boglipoor cloth, and saltpetre.

A substance which naturalists include among the clays, but called khari by the natives, is very generally diffused through the hills; when perfect, it is a matter resembling chalk, but it is not calcareous; women in many parts, eat it when breeding, as in Bengal they eat baked clay; and some of it, for this purpose, is exported to Moorshedabad. Boys, when taught to write, rub it with water into a white liquid, with which they form letters on a black board; and native painters and gilders cover with this liquid the wooden work on which they are about to operate.

The mountaineers within the Boglipoor jurisdiction are supposed to occupy a space of about 1,600 square miles, and are exempted from all taxes, and the ordinary course of the law. An enormous establishment of

nearly 2,500 men is retained to check this handful of barbarians, who are besides bribed, by annual pensions, to abstain from the commission of outrages, such as robbery and murder. The rajas or chiefs, who receive pensions of ten rupees per month from government, and some of the naibs or deputies, are of the rank of Singhs; the remainder of the naibs, and all the majhis, who are pensioned at the rate of two rupees per month, are of the rank of Majhi. The land which appears to be the property of the cultivators is tilled for two years, and then abandoned for five or six. In the low lands that are ploughed, they raise the same articles as on the hills, with the addition of rapeseed and sesamum; they collect wild yams, and, besides cows, for milk and labour, they rear swine, goats, fowls, and pigeons, for eating. Many still retain a superstitious worship of their own; but a great number of the wealthiest have fallen under the spiritual dominion of a low caste of Brahmins, who have instructed them to worship Durga, and say prayers before a bheel tree. Both sexes are much addicted to intoxication, and the amount of the government pensions is generally spent in liquor at Boglipoor, the chiefs returning to the hills as bare of money as they came. The exports of the mountaineers consist of grain, indurated clay, timber, firewood, charcoal, wax, and cotton; their imports are cloths, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal wares, rice, fish, cattle, oil, spices, and salt.

From the time of the Mahomedan invasion until the British obtained possession, the greater part of this district appears to have been in a constant state of anarchy. Some of the original tribes seem never to have been subdued by the Hindoo followers of the Brahmins, and it is only lately that many have put themselves under the guidance of the sacred order; even under the sway of Sultan Shuja, when the Mogul empire still flourished in full vigour, and when that prince actually resided in the district, some portions of the plains were subject to petty chiefs, who contemned his authority, and incessantly agitated the country by their incursions and refractory habits. Mogul officers of rank commonly resided at Rajamahal, Boglipoor, and Monghir, and the first still continues a favourite place of residence with the Mahomedans. Cossim Ali, after his quarrel with the English, dwelt for some time at Monghir, and intended to secure his independence by a line of fortifications erected at Oudanulla. The forcing of these by Major Adams, in 1763, dissipated this vision; but the turbulence of the chiefs of the interior increased, and Captains Brooke and Brown were for several years employed in a miserable warfare with these tribes; but the forces employed were never of such strength as to bring the matter to a conclusion. At length Capt. Brown, of course with the assent of government, by enormous concessions, induced the discontented to become quiet, and his concessions were confirmed by Mr. Cleveland, the civil functionary who succeeded him in authority over the wilder parts of the district. The result was a ruinous settlement and establishment, which still forms part of the Boglipoor economy, and which in the opinion of competent judges (Dr. Francis Buchanan and Mr. Sisson) has produced but little ultimate benefit, those hills in which there is no establishment of the kind (ghautwallas) having continued as tranquil as those into which that establishment was introduced. In 1814 the corporate establishment of the Boglipoor hills consisted of thirteen sirdars or chiefs, thirty naibs or deputies, and 400 manjhis. The pension of a sirdar is ten rupees; of a naib, three: and of a manjhi, two rupees per month. Although the great extent and physical composition of this district necessarily tend to weaken the control of the magistrate, yet in 1815 few crimes of magnitude occurred, the most noted being a murder perpetrated among the hills, on a woman

by her husband; who confessed the crime, and attempted to justify it on the plea that she was a bad housewife, and neglected her domestic duties. The Boglipoor district, although not so populous as some others, is of such extent that it is difficult for the magistrate to exercise an efficient control, some of the tannahs, or police stations, being 100 miles distant from head-quarters.—(*F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Shakespear, Tennant, &c.*)

Boglipoor.—The modern capital of the above district, situated in lat. 25° 13′ N., lon. 86° 58′ E., 110 miles N.W. from Moorshedabad. This town has a mean appearance, although placed in a beautiful situation. The European houses and Mahomedan mosques are ornamental; but the town consists of scattered bazars wretchedly built, and, owing to the declivities, inconveniently placed. In 1810, the total number of houses was estimated at 5,000, inhabited by about 30,000 persons, a majority Mahomedans, who have still a college here, but in a state of great decay. There is also a small Roman Catholic church here, and about fifty Christians of that church, half of them the descendants of Portuguese, the rest native converts, who in other respects retain their own dress and manners. In 1810 the priest was a native of Milan, sent by the Societas de Propagande Fide, who had also charge of the Purnea flock of Papists. There are two very singular round towers (the Padoka) about a mile N.W. from the town, supposed to be of Jain origin. The Raja of Jeypoor, in whose dominions the Jain sect abounds, considers them so holy, that he has erected a building to shelter such of his subjects as visit them. Near Goganullah, one stage from hence, is a monument resembling a pagoda, erected to the memory of Mr. Cleveland by the officers and zemindars of the jungleterry of Boglipoor, as a mark of gratitude for his mild and conciliatory conduct.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Bogpoor.—A small town in the province of Delhi, situated between two branches of the Ganges, twelve miles south from Hurdwar; lat. 29° 48′ N., lon. 78° 9′ E.

Bogwangola (*Bhagavan Gola.*)—A large inland town in the province of Boglipoor, eight miles N.E. from the city of Moorshedabad; lat. 24° 21′ N., lon. 88° 29′ E. This is a very busy emporium for the inland navigation, having sufficient water at all seasons; and from hence the capital of the district is chiefly supplied with grain. The town, which is entirely built of bamboos, mats, and thatch, has been removed more than once on account of the encroachments of the Ganges, and exhibits more the appearance of a temporary fair or encampment, than of a solid commercial mart carrying on a most extensive traffic.—(*Colonel Colebrooke, &c.*)

Bokinagur.—A small town in the Bengal province, district of Mymansingh, seventy-one miles N. by E. from Dacca; lat. 24° 43′ N., lon. 90° 40′ E.

BOMBAY,

A small island, formerly comprehended in the Mogul province of Aurungabad, but now the seat of the principal British settlement on the west coast of India; lat. 18° 56′ N., lon. 72° 57′ E. This island is formed by two unequal ranges of whinstone rocks, running nearly parallel to and at the distance of about three miles from each other. The western range of hills is little more than five miles long; the eastern, exclusive of Colabba, may exceed eight in length. At their northern and southern extremities they are united by two belts of sand, now forming a kind of stone, rising but a few feet above the level of the sea. These natural boundaries were formerly breached in several places, where they admitted the sea, and, according to Fryer's account of Bombay in A.D. 1681, about 40,000 acres of good land were then overflowed. It appears also that the Goper river, which rises among the hills

of Salsette, and disembogues itself into the channel between that island and Bombay, when swollen by floods, used to enter the breaches at the northern extremity, and after traversing the whole extent of the latter, discharge itself into the ocean. In fact, Bombay originally was nothing but a group of small islands, with numerous back waters, producing rank vegetation, at one time dry, and at another overflowed by the sea. So unwholesome in consequence was the vegetation reckoned, that the older travellers agreed in allotting not more than three years for the average duration of life at this presidency.

The fort of Bombay stands on the south-eastern extremity of the island, on a narrow neck of land, formed by Back Bay on the western side, and by the harbour on the eastern. The Worlee sluices are at the north end of the island, a distance of nearly six miles from the fort. Formerly a cocoa-nut wood not only covered the esplanade, but the fort also, down to the channel between Bombay and Colabba. At that remote period of time Mahim was the principal town on the island, and the few houses of the present town then in existence, were interspersed among the cocoa-nut trees, with the exception of those built on Dungaree Hill, adjoining the harbour, which appears to have been then occupied by fishermen. When the fortifications were erected, but very little more land was cleared of the cocoa-nut trees beyond what was absolutely indispensable, leaving the space within the body of the fort, and without its walls, up to the very glacis, a cocoa-nut grove. From time to time, and by various means, the esplanade was gradually cleared of trees to within 600 yards distance of the fort: but cadjan huts were still tolerated until the close of 1802, when they were also removed. In the following year the great fire happened within the fort, and the esplanade was extended to 800 yards.

By this time the more wealthy inhabitants had built houses in a detached irregular manner, throughout the cocoa-nut woods contiguous to the esplanade; and the Dungaree was also built on to the extent of two miles and upwards from the fort; the little vacant ground remaining had in consequence risen to an enormous price. In this state of things the sufferers by the fire, and the indigent from the esplanade, had no alternative but to resort to the Honourable Company's salt batty ground, scarcely recovered from the sea; neither had government any ground to give in exchange for the valuable land taken when extending the esplanade. All these causes combined, serve to account for what is called the new town of Bombay being built in such a low, muddy, unwholesome tract of land, which during the wet monsoon has the appearance of a shallow lake, many of the houses being then separated from each other by water, so that the inhabitants suffer from the inundation and its effects during seven or eight months of the year. At all seasons the ground floor of many of its houses are on a level with high-water mark, some below, and but few actually above it at full spring tides. Much also of the rain-water that falls on the old town and the esplanade, passes through the new town and thence across the breach-hollow to the sluices at Worlee.

Under these circumstances, the surface of the island is so circumscribed, rocky, and uneven (except where a considerable part is overflowed by the sea), that it does not produce a sufficiency of grain in the year to supply its population for one week; yet each spot that will admit of tillage is brought under cultivation of some sort, or planted with cocoa-nut trees. The vellard that communicates between Beach Candy, and Lovegrove, has prevented the ocean from making a breach through the centre. This substantial work, with smaller ones of the same construction, have preserved the low lands of the island from being inundated by the spring tides, which, but for them, would have destroyed all but the barren hills. Although the sea be now

excluded, the rain water still collects in the lower parts of the island, where the surface is said to be twelve feet under high water mark, and during the rains forms an unwholesome swamp. In 1805 Mr. Duncan completed a vellard, or causeway, across the narrow arm of the sea that separated Bombay from the contiguous island of Salsette: an operation of infinite utility to the farmers and gardeners who supply the markets, but which is said to have had a prejudicial effect on the harbour.

The fortifications of Bombay have been improved, but are considered too extensive, and would require a numerous garrison. Towards the sea they are extremely strong, but on the land side do not offer the same resistance; and to an enemy landed, and capable of making regular approaches, it must surrender. The town within the walls was built by the Portuguese, and even the houses that have been since built are of a similar construction, cased in wood, with wooden pillars supporting wooden verandas, shut up with venetian blinds, the roofs sloped and covered with tiles; the consequence of which is, that Bombay bears no external resemblance to the other presidencies. The floors are planked with wood.

There are three government residencies at Bombay. The one within the walls of the fort, although large and convenient, is little used except for holding councils, public courts, and despatching business, of a dismal aspect, looking like a stadthouse in a German free city. At Malabar point, eight miles from the town, is a cottage in a beautiful situation, on a rocky, woody promontory, and actually washed by the sea spray; here the governor resides during the hot weather. The third and principal is Pareil, about six miles from Bombay, at a short distance from the eastern shore of the island. The interior of the house is very handsome, having a fine staircase, and two noble rooms, one over the other, about eighty feet long, and very handsomely furnished. The lower of these, used as a dining-room, is said to have been an old desecrated church belonging to a Jesuits' college, which had fallen into the hands of a Parsee, from whom it was purchased by the government about sixty years ago.

The northern portion of the fort is inhabited by Parsee families, who are not remarkably cleanly in their domestic concerns, nor in the streets where they dwell. The view from the fort is extremely beautiful towards the bay, which is here and there broken by islands, many covered with trees, while the lofty and curiously shaped hills of the table-land on the continent form a striking background. The sea is on three sides of the fort, and on the fourth is the esplanade, at the back of which is the black town amidst cocoa-nut trees. Substantial buildings now extend to very nearly three miles from the fort.

Bombay appears for many years to have been left to itself, and individuals were permitted to occupy what land they pleased, nor was there any system or regulation established for the security of the public revenue. In A.D. 1707 the greater part of the present limits of the fort had become private property; but, by purchases and exchanges between that date and 1759, it became again the property of the Company, yet was subsequently transferred to private persons. It is certainly an extraordinary fact that the principal, if not the whole of the landed property which the Company now possesses within the walls of Bombay, has been recently acquired by purchase, having, within the memory of many persons still alive, bought it of individuals, who were always considered to be merely the Company's tenants at will. The property thus acquired to the Company by purchase and exchanges cost, since 1760, altogether about 7,37,927 rupees.

The buildings within the walls of the fort, including the barracks, arsenal, and docks, may be valued at one crore five lacks of rupees; the

rent of houses within the fort in 1813 amounted to 5,27,360 rupees, including the Company's property. The great price given for ground within the fort, which is daily increasing, the buildings carried on in every part of the European quarter, the commodious and costly family dwellings constructed by many of the natives, and the immense shops and warehouses belonging both to natives and Europeans, furnish the strongest evidence of the high price of ground within the fortress of Bombay, and that it might afford to pay 100 guineas per acre for the support of the police, which, upon 259,244 square yards, would yield 22,036 rupees annually.

Bombay is literally a barren rock, and presents no encouragement to agricultural speculations; but its commercial and maritime advantages are great. It is the only principal settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale; the very highest spring tides reach to seventeen feet, but the usual height is fourteen feet. The docks are the Company's property, and the king's ships pay a high monthly rent for repairs. They are entirely occupied by Parsees, who possess the absolute monopoly in all departments; the person who contracts for the timber being a Parsee, and the inspector on delivery of the same sect. Since 1810, when the Minden seventy-four was launched, many of the best ships of the line and frigates in the British navy have been constructed entirely by Parsees, without the least assistance, and mostly by the Jumsetjee family. The teak forests from whence these yards are supplied lie along the western side of the western ghaut mountains, and other contiguous hills on the north and east of Bassein; the numerous rivers that descend from them affording water-carriage for the timber. The ships built at Bombay are reckoned one-third more durable than any other India-built ships.

The coasting trade of the west of India is very extensive, and it was principally with a view to its protection that such strenuous exertions were made for the suppression of piracy. Taking Bombay as the emporium, it may be divided into northern and southern. The number of vessels of various denominations, from ten to 175 tons, registered in 1820 as being employed in the northern trade, amounted to 730, the tonnage to 39,978. These vessels navigate coastwise from Cape Comorin to the Gulf of Cutch, and sometimes cross the sea to Muscat and the Arabian Gulf. During the eight fair months, that is from October to May, the largest sized vessels perform five or six trips to Damaun, Surat, Cambay, Broach, Jumbosier, and Cutch, bringing from these ports, where they sometimes winter, and where many of their owners reside, cotton, ghee, oil, pulse, wheat, cotton cloths, timber, fire-wood, putchok, mowah, &c., and return to the northern ports laden with the produce of Europe, Bengal, and China. The capital employed in the northern trade, even in the minor articles of commerce, is immense, certainly to the amount of 150 lacks of rupees, and including cotton to double that amount.

Besides these there is a number of smaller boats, from two to thirty-seven tons, that trade in firewood, hay, &c.; their total burthen amounting to 6,580 tons. These are exclusive of a still smaller description of boats, that make occasional trips to Bassein northward, and to Choul southward. The southern staples may be confined to timber, pepper, cocoa-nuts, and coir from Malabar, and besides these, from Canara rice and some cotton; from the Southern Concan, hemp, pulse, fire-wood, and minor articles. Cotton is the grand export to distant countries from Bombay, but the quantity fluctuates remarkably. In 1818 its export from hence to all parts of the world amounted to 208,900 bales; in 1819 to 105,340 bales; and in 1820 to only 20,171 bales. 1,500 pounds of cotton are

here screwed into fifty feet, or one ton. For the European market Bombay is an excellent market to procure gums and drugs of all sorts, Mocha coffee, barilla, cornelians, agates, and Surat cotton goods. The external commerce of Bombay in 1815-16, exclusive of the Company's, amounted to, total imports 3,06,02,230 rupees, total exports 2,67,24,749 rupees; since which it has probably increased at least one-fourth. With the luxuries or conveniences of European production the shops were very indifferently supplied, even so late as 1820, at which date very few European tradesmen were settled at Bombay.

In 1814 the Company's marine at Bombay consisted of eighteen armed cruizers, besides armed boats, advice boats, and other craft; but since then great additions and improvements have taken place. The maintenance of this force was originally rendered necessary by the swarms of pirates that infested the western coasts of India from the shores of the Persian Gulf to Goa, and who were distinguished, more especially those of the more northerly tracts, by their cunning, courage, and ferocity. These nautical banditti have haunted these regions since the time of Alexander the Great, and probably longer, and, although for the present suppressed, would soon relapse into their old practices were the pressure that keeps them under removed.

Within a century the population of Bombay has increased more than tenfold. In 1716 it was estimated at 16,000 souls; in 1816 the result of a census made by government gave the following numbers, which may be depended on, *viz.*

British not military	1,340
Ditto, military and marine	2,460
Native Christians, Portuguese, and Armenians ...	11,500
Jews	800
Mahomedans	28,000
Hindoos	103,800
Parsees	13,150
Total.....	161,550

The number of houses was then 20,786, or about eight persons to a house. The above statement does not include the temporary sojourners and floating population, resorting to the island for transitory and commercial purposes, but not making it their permanent residence. The aggregate of these was computed by Mr. Warden, in 1814, at 60,000 persons, and by the missionaries, in 1816, at from 60,000 to 75,000 persons annually. The floating population above alluded to, consists of Carnatas, Ghauties, Carvas, Maharattas, Arabs, Persians, Goa Portuguese, Parsees, and a large proportion of seafaring men. The number of crimes committed by this miscellaneous population is remarkably small; in May 1821 there were only ninety-three prisoners of every description, and of these only twenty-four were under criminal charges.

Among the Europeans the rage for country houses prevails as generally as at Madras, and is attended with the same inconveniences, all business being necessarily transacted in the fort. The generality of the country houses are comfortable, and even elegant, and though not so splendid as those of Calcutta and Madras, are equally well adapted to the climate, and enjoy more beautiful views. Some of the rich natives have houses of great extent, the children of the family continuing to live under the same roof, even after they are married. The lower classes have small huts, mostly of clay, covered with a mat made of palmira leaves. Their wages are a great deal higher than in Bengal, but food is dearer; palanquin bearers receive seven and eight rupees each per month. The only English church is in the fort. The Portuguese and Armenian churches are more numerous, both within and without the walls; but of the native Christians in Bombay by far the greater number are usually termed Portuguese, and frequent Portuguese chapels. Besides these religious edifices there are three or four synagogues, with many mosques and Hindoo temples. The largest of these is in the Black

Town, one mile and a half from the fort, and is dedicated to the worship of Momba Devi.

The Armenians form a part of these eastern societies of Christians, who differ in point of faith, discipline, and worship, both from the Greek and Latin churches, and have shewn an inviolable attachment to the opinions and institutions of their ancestors, under the severest trials of oppression. They are not numerous in Bombay, but form a very respectable class of Christians, and have one church within the fort. They are occasionally visited by one of the forty-two archbishops, who are subject to the Patriarch of Eckmiazin. By far the greater proportion of these archbishops are titular prelates, whose chief duty is the visiting of their numerous churches dispersed over the eastern world. Besides the church at Bombay they have within the limits of their society churches at Surat, Bussora, Bagdad and Bushire.

The Parsee inhabitants possess nearly the whole of the island, and seem to have perfectly domesticated themselves in their new abode, since their expulsion from Persia by the Mahomedans. They are an active, loyal body of men, and contribute greatly to the prosperity of the settlement. In general they are a tall, comely race, athletic and well-formed, and much fairer than the natives of Hindostan; but the females are more remarkable for their chastity than cleanliness. The girls are delicate and pleasing, but the bloom of youth soon disappears, and before twenty they grow coarse and masculine, in a far greater degree than either the Hindoos or Mahomedans. In every European house of trade there is a Parsee partner, who usually supplies the largest portion of the capital. They wear an Asiatic dress, but they eat and drink like the English. In the morning and evening they crowd to the esplanade to pay their adoration, by prostration, to the sun; on these occasions, however, the females do not appear, but they still go to the well for water.

Most of the original Parsee customs continue unaltered, particularly their mode of sepulture, which is as follows. The body of the defunct is deposited in a cylindrical building, open at the top, about fifty-five feet in diameter, and twenty-five in height, filled up solid to within five feet of the top, excepting a well fifteen feet in diameter in the centre, the part so filled being terraced with a slight declivity towards the well. Two circular grooves, three inches deep, are raised round the well, the first at the distance of four, the second at the distance of ten feet from the well. Grooves of the like depth and height, and four feet distant from each other, at the outer part of the circle, are carried straight from the wall to the well, communicating with the circular ones, to carry off the water. The tomb by this means is divided into three circles or partitions, the outer for the men, the middle for the women, the inner for the children. There they are respectively placed, wrapped loosely in a piece of cloth, and left to be devoured by the vultures; which is soon done, as numbers of these birds are always seen watching and hovering round the charnel-houses for their prey. The friends of the deceased, or the person who has charge of the tomb, come at the proper time, and throw the bones into their receptacle, the well in the centre. From the bottom of the well subterranean passages lead, to remove the bones and prevent the well from being filled. Men of large property build one of the above sort for themselves. The public tombs are five in number, but not all in use, and are situated about three miles north-westerly from Bombay fort. The sun and sea partake with fire in the adoration of the Parsees. Their year consists of twelve lunar months, but they have no subdivision of time into weeks.

The markets of Bombay cannot be expected to equal those of Calcutta, but in variety and qualities of the articles they certainly excel those of Madras. The bazar mutton is hard and lean, but when well fed and taken

care of, is as good as the English; kid is always good, and poultry abundant, but not good unless fed for the purpose. The fish are excellent, but the larger kinds not plentiful. The bumbelo resembles our large sand-eel, and after being dried in the sun, is usually eaten at breakfast with a dish of rice, butter, and split-pease coloured with turmeric, and named kedgeree. The prawns are uncommonly fine. The island is too small to furnish much game, but the red-legged partridge is not uncommon, and snipes are sometimes seen. The frogs here are large, and are eaten by the Chinese and Portuguese. The common and sweet potatoe are very good at Bombay: but the vegetable for which Bombay is celebrated all over the east is the onion. Potatoes are now produced in this quarter of India in the greatest abundance, although so recently introduced; the Bombay market is supplied with this root from Gujerat, and also with some cheese, which is hard and ill-flavoured. The buffaloe furnishes milk and butter, and occasionally beef: but Europeans in general are prejudiced against it.

There is a great difference in the character and habits in society of the natives of our capitals and those of the interior; indeed a person who has resided solely at Bombay cannot have an intimate knowledge respecting the habits and manners of the natives of the distant provinces of India. Not many years ago a Hindoo widow at Bombay wanted to burn herself along with her husband's corpse, which being prevented, she applied to the governor, who refused permission; upon which she crossed the harbour to the Maharatta shore, and there performed the sacrifice. The European society is here less numerous, and the salaries of the public servants smaller, than at the two other presidencies: economy is consequently more attended to; but the style of living is frequently elegant, and always comfortable and abundant. The position of Bombay apparently ought to be healthy, but it is said to be the reverse, the liver complaint being more frequent and fatal here than in any other part of India. Exposure to the land breeze which sets in every evening is frequently followed by a fever; moderate living, and cautiously avoiding all sorts of extremes, is found by experience most conducive to longevity. A literary society has been for many years established at Bombay similar to that of Bengal, and in 1825 no less than three English newspapers and one native newspaper were published weekly. Many charitable and religious institutions have also been established.

As a place of consequence Bombay owes its origin to the Portuguese, to whom it was ceded in A.D. 1530, having been before a dependency on a chief residing at Tanna in Salsette. On account of its fine harbour, a fort was erected by that nation; but the vicinity of Goa, the Portuguese capital of the Indies, prevented its becoming in their hands a station of importance. Two derivations are assigned to the name, one from the Portuguese, Bom Bahia (a good bay), and the other from the Hindoo goddess Bomba Devi.

This island was ceded to Charles the Second in June 1661, as part of Queen Catherine's fortune; and in March 1662 a fleet of five men of war, commanded by the Earl of Marlborough, was despatched with 500 troops under Sir Abraham Shipman, and arrived at Bombay on the 18th September 1662, but the Portuguese governor evaded the cession. The English admiral demanded Bombay and its dependencies, comprehending Salsette and Tanna; while the Portuguese interpreted the treaty to signify Bombay only. The troops were removed to the island of Anjediva, where the mortality was so great that the surviving commanding officer, Mr. Cooke, was glad to accept the island of Bombay on any terms, and to this place they were transferred in February 1664-5, the survivors mustering only 119 rank and file. Such was the inauspicious

commencement of this afterwards flourishing settlement, which in the hands of the Portuguese had remained almost a desert. Mr. Cooke may be considered the first English governor of Bombay; on the 5th Nov. 1666 he was succeeded by Sir Gervase Lucas.

It was soon discovered that his Majesty had made an unprofitable acquisition, and that the East-India Company were much injured by the trade carried on by persons in the king's service, who sold European goods for which they paid no freight. In consequence of these and other reasons, the king, on the 27th of March 1668, by letters-patent, transferred the island of Bombay from the crown to the East-India Company, in free and common soccage, as the manor of east Greenwich, on the payment of the annual rent of £10 in gold, on the 30th of September of each year. The revenue of the island, shortly after the cession, was estimated at £2,823 per annum.

Sir Gervase Lucas died the 21st of March 1667, and was succeeded by the deputy-governor, Capt. Henry Geary. At the commencement of the government Mr. Cooke, the first governor, endeavoured to assemble a force at Salsette, assisted by the Jesuits, in order to re-establish himself at Bombay: but ineffectually, the first governor proving also the first rebel. In 1667-8, the revenue had increased to £6,490; the garrison was 285 men, of which number ninety-three were English; the rest Portuguese, French, and natives. On the 23d of September 1668, Bombay was taken possession of for the East-India Company by Sir George Oxenden, the Company's chief governor, and the troops were transferred from the King's to the Company's service along with the arms, ordinance, and stores. Sir George died in 1669, and was succeeded by Mr. Gerald Augier as chief at Surat, and governor of Bombay, which place continued extremely unhealthy, and much molested by the depredations of the Maharatta pirates. In 1672-3 a strong Dutch fleet appeared off Bombay, and created much alarm; but after reconnoitring, it disappeared without making any attack. In the succeeding year there were 100 pieces of cannon mounted on the fortifications, and the garrison consisted of 400 regulars, of which the greater number were Topasses, and 300 militia. In 1676 letters-patent were obtained from the king to establish a mint at Bombay, at which they were empowed to coin rupees, pice, and budgerooks.

Mr. Augier died in 1677, and was succeeded at Bombay by Mr. Henry Oxenden. At this period Bombay continued of little commercial or political importance, which proceeded in part from the vigorous government of Aurengzebe, then on the throne of Delhi, and the rising power of the Maharattas under the martial Sevajee. In 1679 the island of Henery was occupied by the troops of Sevajee, and the beginning of next year the island of Henery was taken possession of by the Siddee or Mogul admiral; the Bombay government not daring to oppose either, although kept, from their proximity, in a constant state of alarm. In 1681 Mr. John Child, the brother of Sir Josiah Child, was appointed president of Surat, one of the junior counsellers being appointed to act as deputy governor of Bombay. In 1683-4, in consequence of the capture of Bantam by the Dutch, the Court of Directors constituted Bombay an independent English settlement, and the seat of the power and trade of the English nation in the East-Indies.

On the 23d December 1683 Capt. Richard Kegwin, who commanded the Company's garrison, assisted by Ensign Thompson and others, seized on Mr. Ward, the deputy governor, and such members of the council as adhered to him, and assumed the government. The garrison, consisting of 150 English soldiers and 200 Topasses, were joined by the inhabitants of the island, who elected Capt. Kegwin governor, and declared they would only acknowledge the King's authority, although during the

interval between the acquisition of the island and this date, the East-India Company had expended £300,000 at Bombay, on fortifications and improvements. In 1684-5, Capt. Kegwin negociated a treaty with Raja Sambajee, from whom he recovered 12,000 pagodas due to the Company; and on the 19th November 1684, he surrendered the island to Sir Thomas Grantham, on condition of a general pardon to himself and adherents. He had not, it afterwards appeared, embezzled any of the Company's money in the fort, which was restored to them entire, but had subsisted during his rebellion on the fiscal resources of the island.

In 1686 the seat of government was ordered to be transferred from Surat to Bombay, and Sir John Child dying next year, the office of president devolved on Mr. Harris, then a prisoner at Surat, but liberated by the Mogul government next year. In 1688-9 the Siddee's fleet (the Mogul admiral's) invaded Bombay, and got possession of Mahim, Mazagong, and Sion, and kept the governor and garrison besieged in the castle. An order was soon after obtained from Aurengzebe, directing the Siddee to withdraw his troops; but the evacuation did not take place until the 22d June 1690, when the lands belonging to the Portuguese Jesuits were seized, they having been active in promoting the views of the Siddee during the invasion. In 1691-2 the population of Bombay was much reduced by the plague, so that of the civil servants only three remained alive. In 1694 Sir John Gayer arrived as governor at Bombay, which he found in a most disastrous state, principally caused by the depredations of the English pirates on the Mogul trading ships, Aurengzebe insisting that all the loss sustained by his subjects should be made good by the East-India Company. These pirates, in 1698, possessed two frigates of thirty guns, cruizing off Cape Comorin under Capt. Kidd, who was afterwards taken and hanged; one of fifty guns, one of forty, and one of thirty guns, off the Malabar coast.

In 1698 Sir Nicholas Waite was appointed resident at Surat, on the part of the new, or English East-India Company; and in 1700, by his intrigues, procured the imprisonment of Sir John Gayer and Mr. Colt, the old or London Company's servants. At this time, Bombay was in a very weakly condition, and under constant alarm of invasion from the Maharattas, Arabs, and Portuguese. In 1702-3 it was again visited by the plague, which carried off many hundreds of the natives, and reduced the garrison to seventy-six men. In 1708, the rival Companies having united, Sir Nicholas Waite was dismissed; but Sir John Gayer, the legitimate governor, still continuing in confinement at Surat, Mr. Aislabie was appointed; and such was the continued feebleness of the settlement, that the Bombay government this year declined receiving an envoy from the King of Persia, for fear he should observe the weakness of the place, both by sea and land. With the junction of the rival East-India Companies Mr. Bruce's authentic narrative concludes, and no documents have as yet been discovered to fill up the intervening period until A.D. 1748, from which date the following governors have occupied the chair, but the necessity of condensation does not permit the insertion of historical details.

Governors.	Assumed the government.		Quitted it.
William Wake, Esq.		1748	17th Nov. 1750
Richard Bouchier, Esq.	19th Nov. 1750		27th Feb. 1760
Charles Crommelin, Esq.	27th Feb. 1760		27th Jan. 1767
Thomas Hodges, Esq.	28th Sept. 1767		23d Feb. 1771
William Hornby, Esq.	25th Feb. 1771		1st Jan. 1784
Rawson Hart Boddam, Esq.	1st Jan. 1784		9th Jan. 1788
Alexander Ramsay, Esq.	9th Jan. 1788		6th Sept. 1788
Major-General Medows	6th Sept. 1788		21st Jan. 1790

Governors.	Assumed the government.	Quitted it.
Sir Robert Abercromby	21st Jan. 1790	28th Oct. 1793
George Dick, Esq.	Nov. 1793	5th Sept. 1795
John Griffiths, Esq.	6th Sept. 1795	27th Dec. 1795
Jonathan Duncan, Esq.	27th Dec. 1795	died 11th Aug. 1811
George Brown, Esq.	11th Aug. 1811	12th Aug. 1812
Sir Evan Nepean	12th Aug. 1812	——
Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone	1st Nov. 1819	——
Sir John Malcolm	1827	——

At present Bombay rules the whole north-western coast of India, and its influence is felt along the shores of Persia and Arabia. The territorial possessions under its immediate jurisdiction received, in 1818, an immense augmentation by the extinction of the late Peshwaship, and now comprehend the following important and populous collectorates, *viz.*

South of Bombay :

Darwar, Southern Concan,
Candeish, Poona.
Northern Concan,

North of Bombay :

Ahmedabad, Surat, and
Kaira, Broach.

Besides these, the whole of Gujerat is more or less tributary, and both Cutch and Cattywar pay for subsidiary forces. The natives of the above districts are among the most intelligent and industrious of Hindostan, and from hence large quantities of cotton and cotton goods have long been exported. The British provinces being interspersed by the territories of numerous petty native states, it is difficult to define with precision the superficial extent under its direct control; but in the present circumstances of Hindostan, the distinction is of little importance, and the bonds of connexion must inevitably be drawn closer every year, until at last all discrimination will become unnecessary. In 1813 the annual revenue of the Bombay presidency amounted to 64,20,569 rupees; in 1824 to 1,62,06,900 rupees.

The Bombay native army, although the fewest in number, is the most ancient of the three presidencies, sepoys having been disciplined towards the close of the seventeenth century. One hundred from Bombay and 400 from Tellicherry joined the Madras army in 1747, and a company of Bombay sepoys were present at the battle or route of Plassey. The lowest height taken is five feet three inches, and the average height is only five feet five inches; but the men are active, patient, steady, and capable of supporting great fatigue on a slender diet. From its origin to the present day, the Bombay army has been composed of all sects and castes, Mahomedans, Hindoos, Jews, Rajpoots, Coolies, Borahs, Maharattas, &c. Possibly it is owing to this intermixture that the Bombay sepoys have always been prompt to volunteer for any distant expedition, while it goes against the grain with the Bengal and Madras native soldiers. But this is not their only merit, for they are patient under privations, brave in action, and faithful to their employers, exhibiting, in the last respect, a meritorious example to the sepoys of the other presidencies.

A court of judicature is held at Bombay, which has lately been assimilated to those of Calcutta and Madras; and numerous religious, charitable, and literary institutions have also been established within the last ten years. The distance from Calcutta to Bombay by the post road is 1,308 miles, which has been done by express in thirteen days and a half; and it would be easy now to arrange telegraphic stations that would communicate intelligence within a fraction of that time, but the increased celerity could only be of importance during the exigencies of some dangerous hostility. Travelling distance from Calcutta 1,308 miles, from Delhi 965, from Hyderabad 480, from Madras 770, from Poona ninety-eight, from Seringapatam 620, and from Surat 177 miles.—(*Lord Valentia,*

Bruce, Lieut. Hawkins, Warden, M. Graham, Fullarton, Public Documents, &c.)

Bombra.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, seventy miles E. by S. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1818 it was dependent on Nagpoor, and in a state of great desolation, the land assessment, notwithstanding its extent, being only 1,050 Sumbhulpoor rupees.

Bomori.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, thirty-three miles S.W. from Jeitpoor; lat. 25° 10′ N., lon. 79° 4′ E.

Bomrauzpollam.—A town in the Carnatic, fifty miles from Madras; lat. 13° 25′ N., lon. 79° 30′ E.

Bonaa.—A small island in the eastern seas, twenty-five miles in circumference, lying off the north-west extremity of Ceram; lat. 8° S., lon. 128° 5′ E.

Bonaratte.—A small island in the eastern seas due south of Saleyer, principally inhabited by Buggesses, who in 1822 possessed fifty trading prows. On this island and Calawa (a small one in the neighbourhood), fifty years ago the Buggess sovereign was said to have had an establishment for the education of dancing girls.

Bonawasi.—A town in the Canara province, division of Soonda, forty-seven miles north from Bednore; lat. 14° 32′ N., lon. 75° 8′ E. This place is noted by Ptolemy, and is said to have had a dynasty of kings who ruled 1,450 years before the Christian era.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Bong.—A wild unknown country thus named, situated east of Assam, and due north of Ava, adjacent to Yunan in China, and between the latitudes of 26° and 27° N., and 96° and 97° E. lon. The chief branch of the Irawady is supposed to pass through this district.

Bongheer (*Vanaghiri, a woody mountain*).—A small district in the province of Hyderabad, occupying the tract north-east of the capital, and bounded on the south by the Mussy river. It is rather in a better condition with regard to agriculture and population than the residue of the Nizam's territories, and contains a considerable number of small towns and villages. The town of Bongheer stands in lat. 17° 28′ N., lon. 79° 10′ E., twenty-five miles E.N.E. from Hyderabad.

Bontain.—A small district in the island of Celebes, situated at the southern extremity. The bay of Bontain (lat. 5° 33′ S., lon. 119° 47′ E.), is described by Capt. Carteret as large and capacious, and safe anchorage for ships during both monsoons. On the coast of this bay are several small towns; that named Bontain lies to the north, and had then a small palisadoed fort. Wood, water, and fresh provisions, fowls, fruit, and rice, may be procured here in abundance; and the woods swarm with wild hogs, the Mahomedans abstaining from such unclean food. The tides here are very irregular: commonly it is but once high water and once low water in twenty-four hours, the difference seldom exceeding six feet.—(*Stavorinus, Wilcocke, &c.*)

Bony (*or Boni*).—A principality in the island of Celebes, extending twenty leagues along the western shore of the Gulf of Bony, from the river Chinrana to the river Salinico. This gulf, or arm of the sea, is by the natives called Sewa, by Europeans Buggess Bay, and deeply indents the island of Celebes to the south. To the north of Bony, along the bottom of the bay, the country is well inhabited, and abounds in sago, cassia, and pearls. Near the bottom of the gulf, at the river Loo, boat-building is carried on; also some traffic in gold, sago, cassia, and pearls. The inhabitants along the coast fish for biche de mer, which they carry to Macassar and sell to the Chinese. On the east side of the bay the country is not so well inhabited, its navigation being extremely

hazardous to vessels of burthen, on account of the numberless shoals and small rocky islets it contains.

This is the proper country of the Buggesses (named also Bugis and Bouginese), who have always been noted as a very superior race to the generality of the Eastern islanders in courage, enterprize, and intellect. They are the universal carriers of the archipelago, and have been long noted for the fairness of their dealings and the magnitude of their speculations, more especially the Wadjo or Tuadjo tribe; and when trade is mentioned, it may generally be considered as having reference to this race of Buggesses. Yet in navigation and the art of ship-building they have remained stationary for a great length of time; the early voyagers describing their prows and equipments exactly as they exist now. Many of these prows are lost at sea; few taken by pirates, as they defend themselves to the last extremity. They were formerly also noted for fidelity as well as courage, and, like the Swiss in Europe, were employed as mercenaries in foreign armies, in which capacity they served in Siam, Cambodia, and throughout the islands.

The federal government of Bony consists of eight states, each governed by its own hereditary despot, the executive power being vested in one of their number selected from the rest. The office of president has long been elective in the family of the Prince of Bontuallah, even now little more than a considerable village. The chiefs in the Buggess language are named Arung, and the president Arunga; but he can do nothing without the consent of the other members of the electoral college, and is not entrusted with the care of the public treasury. The individuals composing the council of seven hold also executive offices, and choose the prime minister, through whose agency justice is administered, and decrees issued in the name of the king and people of Bony. Any individual of the privileged families, even a female or infant, may be elected into the council, and ultimately to the supreme government. Such is the constitution of Bony, which may be considered as the prototype of all the principalities in Celebes, of which the Buggess may be reckoned the original language. On the sea-coast it is much mixed with Malay, and is to be found pure only among the tribes of the interior and in ancient books. The alphabet consists of twenty-two letters; the form of the character is peculiar, but resembles the Batta and Tagala. The koran has been translated into the Buggess language, and they also possess traditional songs and romances in that dialect.

According to Stavorinus the first monarch of the Buggesses, affirmed by them to be of celestial origin, instituted the code of laws which is still observed. Early in the seventeenth century they were compelled by the Macassars to adopt the Mahomedan, but we have no account of their prior religion or superstitions. Raja Polacca, a powerful prince who died in A.D. 1796, had rendered himself paramount over all the other native tribes, and nearly independent of the Dutch. From this date a regular succession of princes and queens took place until 1823, when Arung Polacca died, and was succeeded by his sister, Arung Datoo. In 1814, in consequence of the insulting conduct of the Bony Raja, he was attacked by the British army under General Nightingale, and defeated with much slaughter, his camp and residence being stormed, and himself ultimately deposed. In 1825 the capital of Bony was taken by the Dutch, apparently without resistance.—(*Stavorinus, Forrest, Leyden, Crawfurd, Raffles, Thorn, &c.*)

Boobooan.—A small island in the eastern seas, lying off the south end of the island of Basseelan, and having a small hummock at the northern extremity, which is woody, but inhabited.

Bool.—One of the southernmost of the Philippines, situated about the tenth degree of N. latitude. In length it may be estimated at thirty-five miles, by thirty the average breadth.

Boolacoomba.—A district subject to the Dutch, situated at the southern extremity of the island of Celebes. The land is fertile in rice, abounds in game, and has extensive forests; but the timber is not well adapted for the construction of houses. During the west monsoon the anchorage before Boolacoomba is dangerous for ships; small vessels, however, can run into the river Kalikongaung. Near the mouth of this river stands the Dutch pallisadoed fort Carolina, which in 1810 was captured by a party of 100 men landed from the Cornwallis; next day they were unexpectedly attacked by a numerous body of confederated natives, good fighters, both by sea and land, and with difficulty managed to repulse them.—(*Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Boondee *(Bundi)*.—A principality of Rajpootana, situated at the south-eastern extremity. The Boondee Raja is of the Hara tribe, and was formerly a power of consequence; but by the loss of the greater part of his territories, which were formed into the distinct government of Kotah, under one of the Raja's own family, his revenue was greatly reduced and boundaries circumscribed. Prior to 1818 this principality was bounded on the south and east by the Chumbul, on the west by the pergunnah of Jehajghur, on the north by certain parts of Jeypoor and the partially independent state of Ooniara. The present Boondee frontier confines, with that of Kotah, about five miles north-west of the Chumbul. The whole, in peaceable times, was supposed capable of yielding six lacks of rupees per annum; but in 1817 more than half was usurped by Sindia and Holcar, so that not more than 60,000 rupees came into the Boondee treasury, besides one lack assigned to the Raja's relations and military retainers, while the peasantry were impoverished by the endless exactions extorted from them by every chieftain who had sufficient power. These sufferings were in a great measure brought on the Raja and his subjects on account of the services rendered by them in 1804 to Colonel Monson and his army during their disastrous retreat; in return for which, at the pacification in 1805, he was abandoned by the British government to the tender mercies of the Maharattas. Though late, his reward came at last: for by the arrangements of 1818 he was released from all foreign intruders, and received so considerable an addition of territory, including the town of Patun (altogether about 2,500 square miles), as stamped him an efficient member of the general federation of Hindostan, under the protection of the British government. —(*Tod, Malcolm, Hunter, &c.*)

Boondee.—A city in Rajpootana, or Ajmeer, the capital of the above-mentioned principality; lat. 25° 28′ N., long. 75° 30′ E. It consists of two parts, Old Boondee and New Boondee. New Boondee is enclosed by a high stone wall, extending up the acclivity behind it, and connected with the fortifications on the cliff above; it is built of stone, and most of the houses are two stories high. The natural situation of Boondee, its air of antiquity and numerous temples, its spacious chowk and magnificent fountains, together with the lake at the north-east quarter, combine to render it an interesting city; and for picturesque effect, the great street opening up to the palace is, of its kind, almost without a parallel. At the lower extremity stands the great temple dedicated to Krishna, covered with groups in relievo, and close by is the figure of a horse cut in stone; and still higher a stone elephant, as large as life, raised on a pedestal; rows of grotesque shops, lining each side of the avenue, extend to the hill, on which the palace, with its turreted windows and battlements, is seen in its full dimensions. It is elevated to

a height of perhaps 400 feet, partly supported by the perpendicular rock, but principally by solid piers of masonry; the appearance of this edifice, when viewed from without the walls, is not less striking.

Old Boondee is situated to the west of the present town, covers a considerable surface, and contains also some fine fountains and pagodas; but it is in a state of general decay, and almost deserted by its population. The pass through the hills to the north of Boondee is nearly seven miles in length, and at the most contracted point is defended by three distinct barrier gateways; between these straights the hills expand into successive amphitheatres of remarkable beauty, in the basins of which a series of artificial lakes have been formed, communicating with each other, and supported by a great dam raised in the gorge of the pass immediately above Boondee. In one of these amphitheatres the Raja has a summer-house and garden, with some Hindoo temples and other buildings. Near the second gateway is the ancient cemetery of the family, containing several handsome chiteries, highly finished, with figures of elephants in combat, caparisoned horses, &c. in very bold relief; and adjoining the gate, on the Boondee side, is a palace called the Sook Mahal, built on a terrace that stretches from hill to hill, and forming the embankment of the great lake, which during the rainy season pours a cataract into the deep pool below.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Boongra.—A town, the head of a pergunnah, in the province of Malwa, belonging to the principality of Bamswara, and situated on the left bank of the Mhye river, nine miles N.E. by N. from that town; lat. 23° 35′ N., lon. 74° 40′ E. It stands on the high road to Pertaubghur.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Booransee Peak.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindoostan, thirty miles N.E. from Serinagur; lat. 30° 24′ N., lon. 79° 15′ E.; 8,644 feet above the level of the sea.

Booreea.—A small town in the province of Delhi, fifteen miles N.W. from Saharunpoor; lat. 30° 9′ N., lon. 77° 20′ E.

Boorhana.—A town in the Delhi province, forty-five miles N. from the city of Delhi; lat. 29° 19′ N., lon. 77° 16′ E.

Boorhanpour (*Barhanpura*).—The ancient capital of the Candeish province, situated on a fine plain on the north-west bank of the Tuptee; lat. 21° 19′ N., lon. 76° 18′ E. About fifteen miles to the S.E. is a range of hills that separate Candeish from Berar. This is one of the largest and best built cities in the Deccan, most of the houses being built of brick, and many three stories high, with neat façades, framed in wood as at Oojein, and universally roofed with tiles. The handsomest portions of Boorhanpour are the market-place, a square of considerable extent, and a street called the Raj Bazar; but there are many other wide and regular streets, paved with stone. The Tuptee here is a clear and beautiful stream, but of no great breadth, and easily fordable in the dry season. On a high bank, close to the river, are the ruins of the fort and palace of its ancient sovereigns, now only remarkable for the great space they cover, the shapeless masses of broken masonry, and the court-yards choked up with weeds and rank vegetation. The vicinity of Boorhanpour for some distance is likewise strewed with the ruins of Mahomedan tombs, mosques, and chapels; yet the city, taken as a whole, is remarkably devoid of architectural interest. Almost the only public edifice worthy of observation is the Jumma Musjeed, a fine pile of masonry, constructed of grey stone in a style peculiar to this quarter of India, with an extended façade supported on low arches; two handsome octagonal minars, with a grand terrace and reservoir in front, but destitute of cupolas, which form the distinctive feature of the mosque in almost every other part of Hindostan.

Boorhanpour is abundantly supplied with water brought from four miles distance by aqueducts, and distributed through every street, the stream being conveyed at a certain depth below the pavement, and the water drawn up through apertures by means of leather buckets attached to a windlass. This is the head-quarters of a singular sect of Mahomedans named Bohrah, whose moullah or chief priest resides at Surat. They distinguish their own sect by the name of Ismaeeliah, deriving their origin from one of the followers of Mahomed who flourished in the age succeeding that of the prophet, from whose native country, they assert, they originally came, *via* Gujerat. The Bohrahs are the great merchants in this quarter of Hindostan, as the Parsees are at Bombay, and here occupy about 500 of the best houses, being the most wealthy of the commercial class. They are of a goodly exterior, with Arab physiognomies, and wear a sort of Arabian costume. About two miles from the city they have a small mosque, with extensive cemetries adjoining, crowded with tombs.

This city, along with the rest of the province, was acquired by the Maharattas about A.D. 1760, during the viceroyalty of Islam Khan, since which period it has been progressively decaying, and in 1816 every village in its neighbourhood was in ruins, owing to the unceasing incursions of Bheels and Pindarries. It was captured by a British army in 1803, but restored to Dowlet Row Sindia, with whom it still remains. The grapes grown in the vicinity of Boorhanpour and Asseerghur (where they are in great profusion) surpass those of Malwa, and are probably the most delicious in India. Travelling distance from Oojein 154 miles; from Nagpoor 256; from Poona 288; from Bombay 240; from Agra 508; and from Calcutta by Nagpoor 978 miles.—(*Fullarton, Hunter, Sutherland, &c.*)

Booro.—An island in the eastern seas, situated between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, and the 126th and 127th of east longitude. In length it may be estimated at seventy-five miles, by thirty-eight miles the average breadth. The principal Dutch settlement on this island is Fort Defence, situated in a marshy plain on the S.E. of Cajelli or Booro Bay, where ships are under shelter during both monsoons, while the land winds which prevail at night facilitate their departure; on which account it is much frequented by South Sea whalers. Wood, water, buffaloes, rice, a profusion of tropical fruits, sago, and the best cajeputty oil (the trees abounding), may be procured here, as also various sorts of cabinet, dye, and aromatic woods, which the Chinese junks come in search of. A portion of the inhabitants are Mahomedans, and possess a mosque; but the interior is peopled by the aboriginal Horaforas, who live dispersed among the mountainous jungles, subsisting on sago, wild fruits, and the produce of the chace. The south of Booro was formerly much infested by the mop-headed Papuas of New Guinea.—(*Forrest, La Billardiere, Bougainville, Stavorinus, Thorn, &c.*)

Boosnah.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Jessore, fifty miles W. by S. from Dacca; lat. 23° 31′ N., lon. 89° 39′ E.

BOOTAN.

(Bhutan.)

This country on the west is separated from the Raja of Sikkim's territories by the course of the eastern branch of the Teesta, from whence it stretches easterly to an undefined extent. To the north it is divided from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; and to the south it is bounded by Bengal, and a number of rude tribes scattered along the northern side of the Brahmaputra. In its greatest dimensions it may be estimated at 250 miles in length, by ninety the average breadth. The term Bhote is applied by the Hindoos

not only to the country named Bootan by Europeans, but also to the tract extending along and immediately adjoining both sides of the Himalaya, in which sense it is a very extensive region, occupying the whole mountainous space from Cashmere to China. In the present article, however, the word Bootan is restricted to the country of the Deb Raja, comprehended within the limits above specified, and the name of Bootanners confined to his subjects, in order to distinguish them from the more expanded tribe of Bhooteas (*Bhotyas*), although in aspect, manners, and religion, there is so entire a resemblance as to leave little doubt of their descent from the same origin.

The northern portion of this province presents nothing to the view but the most misshapen irregularities; some mountains covered with perpetual snow, others with perennial verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees. Almost every mountain has a rapid torrent at its base, and many of the most elevated have populous villages amidst orchards and other plantations. In its external appearance it is the reverse of Tibet, which is a level table-land. The mountainous boundary of Bootan towards Tibet forms part of the great chain which geographers term Mount Imaus, or Emodus, and of which frequent mention is made in the mythological tales of the Brahmins by the name of Himalaya. At the base of the hills towards the Bengal frontier is a plain of about twenty-five miles in breadth, choked up with the most luxuriant vegetation, and which, from its inaptitude to supply the wants or facilitate the functions of human life, was for a long time properly considered as belonging to neither. The exhalations arising from the multitude of springs which the vicinity of the mountains give rise to, are collected and confined by the woods, and generate a most pestilential atmosphere. The trees are large, and the forests abound with elephants and rhinoceroses; but the human animal is much debased in form, size, and strength.

The climate of Bootan exhibits every degree of variation, for at the time the inhabitants of Poonakha are cautious of exposing themselves to an almost vertical sun, those of Ghassa feel all the rigours of winter, and are chilled by never-melting snows; yet these places are within sight of each other. Where the climate is temperate, almost every favourable aspect of the mountains coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared, and adapted for cultivation by being cut into horizontal beds. The country abounds with excellent limestone, but the natives appear unacquainted with its uses for agricultural purposes. The season of the rains about Tassisudon, the capital, is remarkably moderate; there are frequent showers, but none of those heavy torrents which accompany the S.W. monsoon in Bengal. In the hilly tracts of Bootan strawberries, raspberries, and blackberries are found growing wild, and there are also apple, peach, pear, and apricot trees. The forests abound with a variety of handsome timber trees, such as the ash, birch, maple, yew, pine, and fir, but no oak trees. The fir is often seen eight and ten feet in girth. The turnips of Bootan are remarkably good, being large, free from fibres, and very sweet. The best fruits are oranges, peaches, apricots, pomegranates and walnuts. For the purposes of agriculture the Bootanners conduct water across the chasms in the mountains through the hollow trunks of trees. In this country a large proportion of the field labour is performed by females, who plant and weed; and on them eventually the task falls of applying the sickle and brandishing the flail. In all these laborious offices they are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, and to many other grievous hardships.

Wild animals are not numerous in Bootan, but monkeys of a large and handsome kind abound, being held

sacred by the Bhooteas as well as by the Hindoos. The species of horse indigenous to Bootan is called Tanyan, or Tangun, from Tangust'han, the general appellation of the assemblage of mountains that constitutes Bootan Proper, the breed being altogether confined within its limits. They are usually thirteen hands high, and remarkable for their symmetry and just proportions. They are in general distinguished by a tendency to piebald, those of one colour being rare. They are short-bodied, clean limbed, and although deep in the chest, extremely active. Accustomed among their native mountains to struggle against opposition, they seem to inherit this spirit as a principle of their nature, and hence have acquired among Europeans a character of being headstrong and ungovernable, though in reality it proceeds from an excess of eagerness to perform their task.

A caravan despatched by the Deb Raja visits annually the Rungpoor district, bringing the coarse woollen manufactures of Bootan, Tibet cow-tails, bees'-wax, walnuts, ivory, musk, gold-dust, silver in ingots, some Chinese silks, tea, paper, and knives, besides the Tanyan horses that carry the goods. These adventures are entirely on account of the Deb Raja, to whom the goods belong, having been mostly received in kind in payment of the revenues; but the sum total in a national point of view is quite insignificant. The returns usually consist of English woollens, indigo, dried fish, quicksilver, cloves, nutmegs, incense, sandal-wood, sheet and wrought copper, tin, gunpowder, otter-skins, rhinoceros' horns and hides, cotton cloth, coral, and swine. The aggregate amount of the whole seldom exceeds 30,000 rupees, of which indigo alone engrosses half the value. The privilege of thus sending a caravan into Bootan Proper has never been conceded even to the Bengalese, by this jealous and timid government, but the latter are allowed an unrestricted trade in the low country, through which they drive up many swine to the mountains. Small as this trade formerly was, it is said to have latterly declined, although the heavy duties formerly levied on the Bootan imports were abolished by Lord Cornwallis. It seems probable, however, that this insignificant traffic, so eagerly sought after by the British authorities, both at home and abroad, has not so much actually declined as taken a different direction. The presents sent by the Deb Raja to Calcutta in 1772, when afraid of his ears, consisted of sheets of gilt copper, stamped with the black eagle of the Russian armorial, talents of gold and silver, and bulses of gold-dust; bags of genuine musk; narrow woollen cloths, the manufacture of Tibet; and silks from China. The narrainee, a base silver coin struck in Cooch Bahar, about tenpence in value, is current throughout Bootan, where there are local prejudices against a mint.

The military weapons of the Bootanners are a bow and arrow, a short straight sword, and a faulchion reflected like a pruning knife. In war they use arrows tainted with a poison procured from a plant as yet unknown to Europeans. In appearance it is an inspissated vegetable juice, much resembling crude opium. Their matchlocks are very contemptible, and of no use but in such weather as will admit of the primings taking fire in an open pan. They are dexterous in the management of the sword and shield, and excel in archery; they have wall pieces, but no cannon. A strong jealousy of all intercourse with Hindostan has long prevailed throughout this region, which has not been diminished by the recent progress of the British arms, among mountains which had never been conquered, or even seriously invaded by any of the Mahomedan powers.

In person there is a remarkable dissimilarity between the feeble-bodied, meek-spirited natives of Bengal, and their active and Herculean neighbours the mountaineers of Bootan, many of whom are six feet in height. A strong similarity of feature per-

vades the whole Bhootea race, who, though of a dark complexion, are more ruddy and robust than the Bengalese, with broader faces and higher cheek bones. They are greatly afflicted with glandular swellings in the throat, from which the natives of Bengal are exempt, it being calculated that one person in six is more or less disfigured by goitres. The eye of the Bootanners is a very remarkable feature, being small and black, with long pointed corners, as if stretched and extended by artificial means. Their eye-lashes are so thin as to be scarcely perceptible, and the eyebrow is but slightly shaded. Immediately below the eye is the broadest part of the face, which is rather flat, and narrows from the cheek-bone to the chin, a character of countenance prevalent among the Tartar tribes, and more particularly among the Chinese. The skins of the Bootanners are smooth, and most of them arrive at a very advanced age before they have even the rudiments of a beard; their whiskers are also of very scanty growth.

Their houses are in general only one story high, but the palace of the Deb Raja at Tassisudon consists of many floors, the ascent to which is by lofty stairs, an unusual circumstance in Bootan. In a country composed of mountains, and intersected by torrents, bridges must necessarily be of such frequent occurrence, that a traveller has usually several to pass in a day's journey. These are of various construction, generally of timber, but sometimes swung on iron chains. Woollen cloth for raiment, meat, spirits, and tea, are in use among the Bootanners, who are strangers to the subtle niceties and refined distinctions of the Brahminical Hindoos. As a refreshment, tea is as common in Bootan as in China, but it is made by a very different process from that which Europeans are accustomed to follow. In preparing this beverage (if it may be so called) the Bootanners make a compound of water, flour, salt, butter, and Bohea tea, with some other astringent ingredients, all boiled and beat up together. When they have finished a cup, they lick it with their tongue on all sides, in order to make it clean, after which they wrap it up in a piece of scarlet silk. In some cases their medical practice is rendered inconvenient to the physician, who, when the Deb Raja takes a dose of physic, is obliged to swallow, however unseasonably, a proportionate quantity of the same medicine.

The ministers of religion in Bootan are of the Lama Buddhist sect, and form a distinct class, confined solely to performing the duties of their faith. The laity, pretending to no interference in matters of spiritual concern, leave religion with all its rites and ceremonies to those who are attached by early obligations to its doctrines and austerities. Although there is no distinction of caste among the Bootanners, yet they are not without differences in religious opinions, the precepts of Sakhya Singh (the school to which they adhere) differing essentially from that of Gautama, and permitting the consumption of every species of food that is considered impure and abominable by the Brahmins. Om manni paimi om, an invocation to which ideas of peculiar sanctity are attached by the inhabitants of Bootan and Tibet, are words inscribed on most of their public buildings. They are also frequently engraved on rocks in large and deep characters, and sometimes rendered legible on the sides of hills, by means of stones fixed in the earth of so large a size as to be legible at a considerable distance. In the performance of any religious duty, the Bootan functionaries admit of no interruption whatever, which strictness has always proved a source of infinite delay and inconvenience to the British diplomatists who have had business to transact with them.

The Deb Raja, who resides at Tassisudon, is usually considered to be the supreme head of the province, but in strict sense he is only the secular governor, the legitimate sovereign being the Dharma Raja, a

supposed incarnation of the deity; but as this sacred person never interferes in lay affairs, he is only known to foreigners through the transactions of his deputy the Deb Raja. There are said to be eighteen passes from the low countries to the mountains; some of the most important are placed under the control of officers named subahs, the extent of whose power is uncertain. In the hot and rainy season the subah usually resides at a fortress among the mountains; but in the cold season he descends to the lower hills, and often visits the plains, either to enforce obedience or to invade the neighbouring states, on which occasions their attacks exhibit a combination of cowardice, perfidy, and the most fiend-like cruelty. Both the lower hilly country and the plain belonging to Bootan are partitioned into small domains, each having a distinct officer for the collection of the revenue, and the superintendence of the police. Some of these are chiefs of the subdued communities, for no genuine Bhootea has settled in these parts; others are native Bootanners of the mountains. The hereditary chiefs pay a fixed revenue, while the Bootan officers collect the land tax on account of government.

The Deb Raja's authority is best established in the plain, and in the country adjacent to the line of road leading from Bengal to Tassisudon the capital; for with the country to the east and west we are but little acquainted. The principal towns are Tassisudon, Poonakha, Wandipoor, Ghassa, and Murichom. The nearest governor to the Sikkim frontier is the subah of Dellamcotta; next to him the subah of Luckidwar; then the subah of Buxedwar; and east from the Gudhadar river is the subah of Burradwar. The next governor towards the east is the subah of Repudwar, who has under him a jungly district named Raymana, bounded on the east by the Sonkosh; and still further east is the subah of Cherang, a place at the head of a pass, four days' journey from Cutchubarry. The country between the Sonkosh and the Ayi belongs to a tributary, and beyond the river last mentioned the Bijnee territories commence. In A.D. 1820 the Deb Raja claimed a principal portion of the lands of Maraghaut, occupied by the Raja of Cooch Bahar, which, after investigation, were declared by the British government to belong to Bootan.

In ancient Brahminical legends the denomination of the country we call Bootan is Madra, but respecting its early history we have no record or tradition. The first intercourse of its government with the British nation happened in 1772, in which year the Deb Raja suddenly invaded the principality of Cooch Bahar, and meeting with little opposition from the natives, rapidly gained possession of the country. This was decidedly the first instance of hostility between the two states, and it had proceeded to the last extremity before the government of Bengal, which had hitherto derived no benefit from the contested territory, was apprized of what had befallen it. The invaders were easily driven back by two battalions of native infantry, and next year pursued by a detachment under Capt. John Jones into their own territories, where the fortress of Dellamcotta was taken by storm. This exploit greatly alarmed the Bootan Raja for his own safety, and induced him to apply to the Teshoo Lama, through whose mediation a peace was subsequently arranged. After the defeat and flight of the Bootanners in 1772, Durp Deo, the chief of Bykantpoor, who had joined them, sent a messenger from the jungles, to which he had fled, begging to be restored to his estate, in consideration of which he engaged to pay a tribute of 25,000 rupees per annum in place of 10,000 rupees, which had hitherto been his stipulated payment. These terms were accordingly acceded to, and the zemindar was put in possession, not only of his former estate, but also of what had been alienated by the Bootanners.

The present possessions of Bootan to the south-west are separated from

the Bengal districts by the river Teesta, as far south as Gopaulgunge, a village situated on the eastern bank of that river. To the south of this point the British territories cross the Teesta, and intermix with those of Bootan in a most irregular manner, the boundary line in this quarter being altogether imaginary. Portions of territory belonging to each state are completely insulated by the possessions of the other, as exemplified in the extensive tract named Phulacotta, which lies to the west of the Teesta, and is completely surrounded by the Bengalese zemindary of Bykantpoor, without any intelligible or even perceptible land-marks. The retention of Phulacotta, however, is attended with such lucrative advantages to the subah of Dellamcotta and the local officers, that no hopes are entertained of being able to effect its purchase or exchange for some other space of adequate value.

The European reader will scarcely believe, that along the whole line of British frontier, from the Sutuleje to the Brahmaputra, there exists, and always has existed, a regular and persevering system of encroachment on the British possessions, which, although frequently detected and baffled, has in many instances proved successful. In these attempts, no nation has proceeded more prosperously than the Bootanners, whose encroachments have not been confined to that part of the boundary west of Cooch Bahar, although it began there. The line of frontier east of the Sonkosh, to the confines of Assam, has been still more subjected to their intrusions, as in this quarter they have managed to appropriate to themselves the large estate of Bidyagong, immediately adjacent to Bijnee, where their interference, as will be seen under that head, was still more irregular. The Bidyagong estate was obliged originally to deliver annually forty elephants to the British government, which last, as the feudal superior, had the sole right of nominating to the succession. It is true that the Bidyagong chief gave the Bootanners yearly about 400 rupees worth of cotton cloths and dried fish; but this was done merely to conciliate the good-will of a tribe, which from its position was always able to harass his estate. The Bootan government never dared to dispute the sovereignty of the estate with the Moguls, from whom the delivery of the goods above-mentioned was kept a profound secret. The Deb Raja, while the attention of the British presidency was directed elsewhere, got possession of the Bidyagong zemindary, and some years after, when the circumstances of the case were reported, it was determined to forego all claim to an object that appeared of such trivial importance. During the correspondence that took place before that resolution was definitively adopted, the Deb Raja, on being required to produce his documents, replied that it was not customary for the Bootanners to be regulated by writings, but by possession.

In 1815 Kishen Khant Bos, a native agent, was deputed to Lassa by the Bengal government to negociate some boundary arrangements with the Deb Raja, but could not get any further than Bootan, where he remained above a year. On his return he gave in a report of his journey and description of the country he had visited, which document, however, threw little or no light on the history of this singular country, although it is most particular in recording the monthly wages paid to the government servants. In 1816 the advance of the Chinese forces towards Nepaul excited a considerable sensation at the court of the Deb Raja, where it was ascribed to the intrigues and misrepresentations of the Gorkhas, and the Deb expressed his hopes of assistance, in case he incurred the displeasure of the Chinese government by refusing to act against the British. These amicable professions, however, were probably elicited by the existing state of affairs in Bootan, where in consequence of some difference between the Dharma, or spiritual, and the Deb or secular Raja,

the deposition of the latter was contemplated, and a civil war expected. To prevent this extremity the Deb Raja declared he would resign the reins of government, after the approaching month of June, to Lama Sree Tap, who before had disputed with him the succession to the office of Deb Raja, and had been deposed after having actually assumed that dignity; but the sincerity of these protestations was much questioned, and it was not generally supposed that he would actually perform what he had professed in the moment of danger. In the event of a contest, one party will endeavour to conciliate the favour of the British, the other that of the Chinese, whose direct authority will probably be ultimately established throughout Bootan, as it has been in Tibet.—(*Capt. Turner, F. Buchanan, Sisson, Public MS. Documents, D. Scott, Kishen Khant Bos, &c.*)

Booton.—An island in the eastern seas, lying off the south-eastern extremity of Celebes, about the fifth degree of south latitude. In length it may be estimated at eighty-five miles, by twenty the average breadth. It is separated from the island of Pangansane by a strait which is passable for square-rigged vessels.

This island is high and woody, but well cultivated, producing rice, maize, yams, a variety of tropical fruits, and abundance of the wild bread-fruit tree, the kernel of which is indigestible. Fowls, goats, buffaloes, and fish may also be procured. The inhabitants are ugly and of short stature, their religion the Mahomedan, and language (on the sea-coast) the Malay. The Dutch had formerly a settlement in the bay of Booton, where they sent annually an officer, named the extirpator, to inspect the woods and destroy the clove trees. On the east-side Booton is indented by a bay called Dwaal, or Mistake Bay, by the Dutch, into which, if a ship be drifted by the currents, she cannot get out again until the west monsoon sets in, and even then it is difficult. A Dutch governor going to Banda, was detained in this vexatious state for a whole year.—(*Stavorinus, Labillardière, Forrest, Bougainville, &c.*)

Bopaul. (*Bhupala, a lord or king.*)—The capital of a small independent Mahomedan principality in the province of Malwa, which forms the exact boundary of the old Hindoo province of Malwa, one gate being within its boundaries, and the other in Gundwana; lat. 23° 17′ N., lon. 77° 30′ E., 100 miles E. from Oojein. It has the possessions of Sindia and of Kotah to the north, the territories of Sindia to the east; the Nerbudda to the south, and the districts of Sindia and Holcar to the west. The surrounding country is an uneven jungly tract, but the soil is generally fertile, especially in the vallies, and it is well watered by numerous streams of which the Betwa is the most considerable. In 1820 the whole principality contained 1,571 jaghire and khyrat (charity), and 2,559 khalsa or crown villages, of which last 714 were uninhabited. In 1819 the gross revenue of Bopaul amounted to nine lacks of rupees, but it was expected to reach twenty lacks in 1824.

The town of Bopaul is surrounded by a stone wall; but presents a ruinous appearance, notwithstanding it is the residence of the Nabob Foujdar Khan. On the outside is a suburb equally decayed, and on the south-west a ghurry or native fortification, built on the solid rock, with a stone wall and square towers, but all much dilapidated. Under the south-west angle of this fort is a large tank, formed by an embankment at the confluence of several streams, one mile and a half in breadth, and extending to the west four miles and a half, whence issues the river Bess. On the east of the city there is a smaller tank having two dams across, extending in length about two miles from north to south, the source of the small river Patra.

The town and territory of Bopaul are occupied by a colony of Patans,

to whom they were assigned by Aurengzebe, in whose service was Dost Mahomed, an Afghan adventurer, the founder of this petty state, who reigned in A.D. 1723. After his death the usual mixture of usurpation, assassination, and other irregularities inherent to all native dynasties, took place, but some member of the first chief continued to occupy the throne, with more or less vigour, until the end of the eighteenth century, when the superior energy of Vizier Mahomed (although of an illegitimate origin) raised him to the musnud. In 1812 he made a long and successful defence of Bopaul against the combined forces of Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja. In the urgency of his distress, he earnestly solicited assistance from the British government: but, notwithstanding the testimonials he produced from General Goddard in favour of his predecessors, a deaf ear was turned to his supplications. Being thus abandoned to his fate, and harder pressed than ever, he was apparently on the eve of being subdued, when he died in 1816. The Pindarry power having now attained its acmé, interference became unavoidable, and the Bopaul state was not only taken under the protection of the British, but its territories so greatly augmented, that in 1817 Capt. Henley estimated that in five years they would yield the Nabob an annual revenue of from twenty-five to thirty lacks of rupees. Nusser Mahomed Khan, the reigning Nabob, died in 1819, and was succeeded by Moneer Mahomed Khan, twelve years of age. The eldest son of the late Nabob's brother was raised to the throne, and affianced to Nusseer Mahomed's daughter, his widow being continued in administration of Bopaul, now a substantive state of Central India. The affairs of this state appear to have been tolerably well managed by Nusser Mahomed's ministers, and the British interference has been little called for; the most convincing proof that can be given of the good condition of a dependent ally.—(*Malcolm, Prinsep, Henley, Hunter, &c.*)

Borasambah.—A pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Patna, eighty miles S.W. by W. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1817 Raja Beneer Neehil Singh was assessed by Major Roughsedge at 500 Nagpoor rupees.

Boregaum.—A town surrounded by a mud wall in the province of Candeish, one mile south of the Sookta river, which separates Asseer from Cundwah, eleven miles N. by E. from Asseerghur. In 1820 it contained 500 houses. Lat. 21°37′ N., lon. 76°30′ E.

Boriah.—A small petty chiefship in the province of Delhi. In 1820 the British government interfered to settle a dispute between the two rannys of Bhugwunt Singh, the deceased Raja, and entrusted the management of affairs to Dya Kooar, the senior Ranny.—(*Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Borkhampti.—This country is situated adjacent to Assam beyond the Langtan mountains, which are said to give rise to the Dihong or western branch of the Brahmaputra; but as yet scarcely any thing respecting it is known. The south-eastern portion of the Langtan mountains are said to be visible from Seedeeya. It is supposed by some to lie along the upper course of the Irawady river, and to be a district of Moonkoong, or Mogoun, and tributary to the Burmese. It is said to be separated on the east from China, and on the north from Tibet by lofty mountains covered with snow, and accessive from the south by the course of the Irawady. The mountains, according to the same authority, are inhabited by Khunoong Mismees, who trade with China and Tibet. Silver abounds in the north-eastern, and iron in the south-eastern portion of these mountains. Of the iron they fabricate the Khampti dhaws or axes, which are held in great estimation. These Borkhampties are said to have come from that part of the Shan country situated east or south-east of Mogoun.—(*Public Journals, &c.*)

BORNEO.

(Varuni.)

The largest of the Asiatic isles, extending from the seventh parallel of north, to the fourth parallel of south latitude, and from the 109th to the 118th of east longitude. The kingdom of Borneo, or Burni, by Europeans termed Borneo proper, having been the first state visited by them, may have given rise to the erroneous application of the name to the whole island, which by the native inhabitants, and throughout the eastern archipelago, is universally termed Pulo Klemantan. It is of a solid, compact, egg-like figure, and not so deeply indented by arms of the sea as the Eastern islands generally are, yet it possesses many spacious bays and harbours, and is surrounded by muddy shores, and numberless isles and rocky islets, many of the latter not larger than a common European house. In length it may be estimated 750 miles, by 350 the average breadth, giving a superficial area of 262,500 square miles.

The interior of this island being still wholly unexplored, we are compelled to trust to the inaccurate communications of the ignorant natives to Europeans formerly settled at the different factories, or occasionally visiting the sea-coast on trading voyages. This species of information is obviously not entitled to much attention; from a concurrence of testimony, however, we may infer, than in general, for above thirty miles inland, it continues marshy and alluvial, interspersed with small hills, almost covered with jungle, but to a certain degree cultivated. Further inland it becomes mountainous, and is covered with forests, swarming with wild animals, and producing that species of large ape, named by Malays orang outang, or man of the woods. These mountains are said to stretch in ranges running north and south, between which rivers flow, and extensive lakes stagnate. If we may credit Malay accounts, this central tract is also partially inhabited, as they assert that many of the articles, both of traffic and subsistence, sold on the sea-coast to Europeans, are brought from a distance of twenty days up the country.

The rivers of Borneo best known to Europeans are those of Banjarmassin, Passir, and Borneo proper, which were ascertained to be navigable for boats above fifty miles from their junction with the sea; but they have never been ascended higher by Europeans, and rarely even by the resident Malays. In a country drenched by the solstitial rains there are probably many other streams and rivers, but of a short course, and seldom navigable, which is an additional obstacle to the exploring of the interior, to those interposed by the Mahomedan natives of the coast, who endeavour to monopolize the traffic by preventing all communication between the inland natives and the Chinese or Europeans.

The climate of the northern portion of Borneo much resembles that of Ceylon, being from the abundance of verdure always cool, and not subject to the hot land winds that prevail on the coast of Coromandel. It is watered also by numerous fine streams, several of which fall into the bay of Malloodoo without bars. In this quarter are the high mountain and large lake of Keeneebaloo, near to which live the wild Idaan, named also Maroots, Horaforas or Alforeze, and Dayaks. According to native accounts the lake of Keeneebaloo is 100 miles in circumference, and its waters (which are represented to be of a whitish colour) from five to six fathoms deep. On the main-land of the north coast, opposite to Balambangan and Banguey, are forests of tall timber without underwood, and free-stone is also found in abundance. Here are large flocks of cattle named lisang, and flocks of deer and wild hogs feed in the plains without fear of the tiger. The country produces, when properly cultivated, all sorts of tropical fruits, grains, and vegetables, but the climate has hitherto proved very destructive to European constitutions.

The coasts of this island are possessed by a number of petty Mahomedan states, some of which are said to be of long duration. The resident population of these is a mixture of Malays, Japanese, Buggesses, and Macassars, a few Arabians, and some converted aboriginals. They have in all ages been a rapacious, treacherous race, much addicted to piracy, with whom Europeans have never yet been able to establish a secure intercourse. A considerable number of Chinese are always found among them; and it is a remarkable fact, that their unarmed and unprotected junks trade without difficulty, along a coast so fatal to Europeans, yet their cargoes are valuable, and their vessels defenceless. The interior is chiefly occupied by the agricultural tribes named Dayaks, very few of whom have as yet embraced the Mahomedan religion; that of the Dayaks is but little understood, although some of their usages have attracted attention from their singularity. In many places the possessions of these Dayaks extend quite to the sea-shore, more especially on the eastern coast within the straits of Macassar. There are also considerable colonies of Chinese settled along the principal rivers in the interior, where in some instances they appear to have established a sort of independence. The lofty central mountains of Borneo are represented as occupied by tribes of Punams, who, like the Beduhs of Ceylon, are said to exist in the very rudest stage of savage life. At present the maritime states are chiefly the following, *viz.* 1. Borneo Proper, 2. Coti, 3. Passir, 4. Banjarmassin, 5. Matten, 6. Pontiana, 7. Sambas. The chiefs or rajas of these piratical states possess each one or more strong-holds, from which, with the assistance of a pestilential climate, they have frequently repulsed European troops with severe loss.

On the north coast of Borneo, about Malloodoo Bay, is a considerable territory, the sovereignty of which has been long claimed by the Sooloos, but which, along with the adjacent islands of Balambangan, &c. was regularly ceded to the British, and at different periods assumed without any opposition from the Sultan of Borneo Proper. Although possessing a fertile soil, and irrigated by various small rivers running from the interior, it still remains nearly in a state of nature, and almost uninhabited; yet it is said to communicate by land carriage of about fifty miles with the great lakes of the interior, in the vicinity of the gold-producing formations. Should any settlement be hereafter made on this coast, which appears to be British property, it ought to be fixed on a territorial, and not on a commercial basis, for all the latter have failed. There has been a colony of Cambodians, one thousand in number, established in Borneo for above fifty years.

Some notices have been received of ruins of temples and dilapidated cities in Borneo, and of the existence of inscriptions in characters unintelligible to the Chinese, Malays, and Dayaks; but the information is quite inconclusive, and it still remains uncertain whether this island had ever attained a higher degree of civilization than it at present exhibits. That Borneo was visited many centuries ago by the Chinese and Japanese, is well established; but whether it was ever (until recently) permanently colonized by either of these nations, is not satisfactorily ascertained. Porcelain jars, plates, vases, and earthen utensils, the manufacture of China and Japan, are frequently discovered in different parts of the country; and such is the veneration in which these articles are held, that a single antique jar has been known to be purchased by the Dayaks of the interior for a sum little short of £200 sterling; these are prized as the supposed depositories of the ashes of their ancestors, by the unconverted Dayaks, and appear to be their sole objects of veneration, for at present they know not the use of priests, images, temples, or even of brick, mortar, and stones.

In the province of Luccadow, up

the great river Lawai, and nearly in the centre of Borneo, according to Malay information, there are twenty-four tribes of different appellations, whose bodies are not tattooed, and six that have this distinguishing mark; a tribe like the Papua negroes; and another as fair as the Chinese, and, like them, wearing trowsers. The natives call their island Klemantan, or Quallamontan; and the names of many of the rivers, mountains, and districts, greatly resemble those of the Ultra Gangetic provinces. When the Portuguese first visited this island, in A.D. 1530, they found the Mahomedan religion regularly established on the sea-coast.

Borneo has long been known to abound in gold, principally in alluvial deposits, from whence it is procured by the natives and Chinese, but most effectually by the latter, who carry on their operations principally in a territory situated between Sambass and Pontiana, named Montradak, from the chief mining village, situated inland two days' journey by water. The whole tract here specified is alluvial, being intersected by numerous rivers flowing from the interior, of considerable size. The Chinese population in this division have been estimated at 36,000, including 4,000 women of a mixed breed; of this number 6,000 work the mines, while the rest are occupied in trade and agriculture. They are almost independent of the native chiefs, paying a tax to the Sambass Raja, in whose territories the mines are, of about 4,000 Spanish dollars per annum. The mines usually consist of longitudinal excavations, following the course of the mineral strata, and of very superficial depth, seldom exceeding sixteen feet; the auriferous earth is washed every thirty-five days, in which space of time a mine wrought by 200 labourers will yield from 250 to 500 ounces of the precious metal in dust. The annual produce of the great mines of Montredak have been estimated at 88,362 ounces of gold, and the total number of Chinese in or near the gold districts at 200,000 persons. Antimony is found accumulated in large masses or mountains at Sadang and Sarawa, from whence it is exported to Singapoor in large quantities; indeed the supply appears inexhaustible.

Borneo is the only island of the Eastern archipelago in which the diamond is found, and principally limited to the territories of the Banjarmassin and Pontiana chiefs. The most productive mines are at a place named Landak, from which the diamonds of Borneo are designated to distinguish them from those of Hindostan; and it is remarkable that the same alluvial tract is also the richest in gold. These mines appear to have been long wrought by the Dayaks, or aboriginal savages, but probably with little skill or industry; and even now diamonds are little prized by the Chinese, the resident Buggess merchants being the great traffickers in these gems. In 1815 the petty chief of Mattan possessed one of the largest diamonds in the world, obtained about a century ago in the mines of Landak; in the rough state it weighed 367 carats, equal to 183¼ when cut and polished, only eleven carats and a half less than the Emperor of Russia's diamond, and forty-six carats and three quarters heavier than the Pitt diamond; its real value is £269,378, which is £34,842 less than the Russian, but £119,773 more than the Pitt diamond. It is reported since the above date to have fallen into the hands of the ambitious chief of Pontiana.

The inhabitants of the interior, or aborigines, have received various appellations, in the south and west Dayaks, in the north Idaan, and in the east Tiroon; but they appear in every respect to resemble the Horaforas, or Alforese, of the Dutch and Portuguese. The latter are indigenous in nearly all the eastern isles, and are sometimes found in the same island with the Papuas, or oriental negroes; but the latter have never yet been discovered by Europeans in Borneo. The Dayaks are often lighter in colour than the Mahomedans of

the sea-coast, and generally excel them in strength and activity; they are divided into a great variety of tribes, independent of each other, and varying in dialect, but they have a general resemblance in language, customs, and manners. Europeans have, as yet, had few opportunities of investigating the condition of the Dayaks, as the Malay and Buggess traders, who alone frequent the interior, can give little account of the country, beyond the distance of one place from another, and the articles of traffic to be procured at the different marts.

In appearance the Dayaks are handsomer and fairer than the Malays, of a more slender make, with higher foreheads and noses; their hair long, strait, and coarse, and generally cut close round their heads. They wear a small wrapper round their loins, and frequently tattoo their bodies. Their houses are wooden erections of such a size as to contain several families, sometimes amounting to 100 persons. They cultivate rice, collect gold dust and diamonds, and trade in rattans, dammer, and the other products of their forests. In their diet they are subject to few restrictions, hogs, rats, snakes, and all kinds of vermin, being equally welcome. Their arms are a sampit or blow-pipe, and poisoned arrows, and a large heavy knife. Few are acquainted with fire-arms except in the immediate vicinity of the Malay states. Their riches consist in the number of jars, gongs, porcelain, cups and saucers, &c.; but the first are most valued: some from superstituous motives, as high as 1,000 dollars. As subjects they are industrious, particularly disposed to agriculture, and so docile, that in many parts a handful of Malays tyrannize over thousands of these peaceful cultivators of the soil.

In their manners the most singular feature is, the necessity imposed on every person of some time in his life imbruing his hands in human blood, no person being permitted to marry until he can show the skull of a man he has slaughtered. It is not necessary, however, that this trophy should be the result of his own prowess, on the contrary, the head hunter proceeds with his party to the vicinity of another tribe, where he lies in ambush until he can surprise some unsuspecting wretch, whose head is immediately chopped off. Occasionally they pounce on a solitary fisherman, who is in like manner decapitated forthwith. He then returns to the village in triumph, is joyfully received, and the head hung up over the door. When a death occurs the corpse is reduced to ashes, and a slave killed, in order that he may act in the same capacity in the next world. Rich men purchase slaves when they are cheap, to have them at hand in case of emergency. The heads they preserve with great care, and sometimes consult in divination. The religious, or rather superstitious, opinions connected with these barbarous practices are not yet correctly understood.

As may be supposed, the practice of head-stealing, so universal with these petty tribes, must cause endless wars and feuds among them; but the men are stimulated by the contumely they experience, both from the females and their more fortunate comrades, if they cannot perpetrate a murder and carry off the head. Mr. Burn relates that he saw a person who had the reputation of having obtained eleven heads, while his son, although only a lad, had obtained three. When a married woman commits adultery, the husband in order to wipe off the disgrace kills one, two, or three of his slaves, and sometimes also beats his wife, or if he can procure a head, he may quit her and get another. In short, no transaction of importance appears to take place in which the possession of a human head is not considered a necessary element.

The Biajoos may be considered as the same race with the Dayaks, Idaan, and Horaforas, with their manners somewhat diversified by the nature of their pursuits, which are those of a maritime life. They are in reality a kind of sea gipsies, or itinerant fishermen, who live in small covered

boats; and enjoy a perpetual summer on the Indian ocean, shifting to leeward from island to island, with the variations of the monsoon. In some of their customs this singular race resemble the natives of the Maldives, like whom they annually perform a sacrifice to the god of evil, by launching a small bark loaded with the sins and trespasses of the people, which are imagined to be transferred to the unfortunate crew that may be so unlucky as to meet with it.

The Biajoos on the north-west coast are more civilized than the others, and while the English colony at Balambangan existed, used to supply it with rice, fowls, and other provisions. By the Malays they are named Oranglaut, or men of the sea. These fishing Biajoos have boats of about five tons, with whole families on board, who catch sea slugs in seven and eight fathoms water. They also dive for it; the best, which is the black sort, being only found in deep water, some of the weight of half a pound each. They are sold to the Chinese at the rate of five dollars per picul, or 133¼ pounds. Some Biajoos dwell close to the sea on the islands scattered round Borneo, and at the mouths of the rivers, where their houses are raised on posts. Many of this sedentary class have become converts to the Mahomedan religion.

On the north-east coast is a savage people named Orang Tidong, or Tiroon, supposed to be another variety of the Biajoo race. These reside up the river, and fit out vessels to cruize among the Philippines, and on the north-eastern seas of Borneo. They are a hardy race, and subsist mostly on sago during their voyages. The Malays of Magindanao affect to despise them, but when they meet among the Philippines, which are their common prey, they do not molest each other. These are described as occasional eaters of human flesh. Their boats are small and the planks being merely sewed together, they can easily take them to pieces and carry them overland when cooped up in any bay by the Spanish guarda costas. Their conduct to their prisoners is cruel in the extreme, often mutilating the strongest, or leaving them to perish on some desert sandbank. They sell a great deal of sago to the Sooloo islanders, who afterwards dispose of it to the Chinese junks. There remains another class of Biajoos, who wander about Celebes, Borneo, and the Philippines, and who are composed of a medley of different nations; such as Chinese with long plaited hair; Javanese with bare throats, plucked beards, and whiskers; and Macassars with black shining teeth. They are said mostly to follow the Mahomedan and Chinese religions.

Comparing the condition of this island, in civilization and cultivation, with other parts of India, the population of which is better known, although of so immense a size, we cannot assign it a greater number of inhabitants than from three to four millions; not including in the estimate the orang outangs, which some authors assert is also a cooking animal. The inhabitants of the north coast have a tradition that their country was once subject to China, and in modern times it has become a grand receptacle for the surplus population of that overflowing empire. In 1818 the Dutch commissioners at Pontiana put forth claims to the whole of the island, which, if admitted, would in addition to Java, which they have long possessed, and Sumatra, which they acquired by treaty in 1823, give them dominion over three of the largest islands in the world, besides two-thirds of Timor and Ceram. In 1824 the Chinese gold miners at Sinkawang were in a state of insurrection against the Dutch, who at the commencement were unsuccessful, and obliged to evacuate that portion of the coast. At this date all the Dutch establishments on the west coast of Borneo depended on the residencies of Pontiana and Sambass, or on the subordinate residencies of Mampava and Landak; the chief of which was to bear the title of Resident on the west coast of

Borneo. Mr. Muller, who was employed by the Batavian government (about 1823), surveyed the whole north-western coast of the island, and also fixed many important geographical points of the interior; but many of these surveys were subsequently lost, in consequence of his having been murdered by the natives. —(*Forrest, Dalrymple, Leyden, Raffles, Crawfurd, Hunt, Stavorinus, Wilcocke, Elmore, &c.*)

Borneo Proper *(pronounced Brunai)*.—A Malay kingdom on the north-west coast of Borneo, and the most civilized portion of the island. The sea-coast of this state extends about 700 miles, with a depth of territory inland of from 100 to 150 miles. To the west it confines on Sambas at Tajong Data, lat. 3° N., lon. 110° 36′ E.; to the east it is bounded by the tract claimed by the Sooloos, marked by the mouth of the Sandakan river in lat. 5° 50′ N., lon. 118° 15′ E. To the south Borneo Proper has various savage tribes, such as the Kayan, the Dusum, the Marut, and the Tatao. To this principality also belong the following islands, *viz.* Malaweli, Banguey, Balambangan, Balabak, and Babullan, among which are several fine harbours.

The most important rivers on the north-west coast are those of Rayung and Batavia, which lead to Sibeta, the capital of the Kayan, the most powerful of the unconverted tribes in this quarter of the island. The others are the Mahori, and that of Borneo, which is navigable for vessels of 300 tons twenty miles above its junction with the sea. On the north-eastern coast is the Sandakan, or China Batangun river.

The interior of the Bornean dominions present extensive chains of mountains, the most remarkable of which, named Keeneebaloo, in lat. 6° north, owing to its great elevation, is visible from both sides of the island, which is here comparatively narrow. The geology of Borneo Proper, as far as European knowledge goes, is primitive, and destitute of the trap formations so common in the Sunda chain; neither have any volcanoes been discovered within the limits of this kingdom. Further west, between the second and third degrees of north latitude, the districts of Sarawak and Kasinloka abound in gold, and the semi-metals antimony and zinc. In the Kayan country iron and tin are found, and even wrought by the natives.

The land animals of this territory hitherto discovered are the elephant, rhinoceros, and leopard, but not the royal tiger; the bear, horse, buffalo, ox, hog, dog, cat, duck, and common fowl. The three animals first mentioned are only found in a single corner of this vast island, the districts of Ungsang and Paitna; nor are they to be found in the archipelago further east. The horse, the goat, and the dog have been imported and domesticated, and the range of the first is still limited to the districts of Pandasan and Tampasok, between the fifth and sixth degrees of north latitude. The ox and hog are natives of the forest, and the jungles of Borneo furnish an endless variety of the ape and monkey tribes, some of them nearly approaching the human form. The seas yield the turtle, pearl oyster, mother-of-pearl oyster, and the biche de mer, or esculent sea slug; the land, rice, sago, black pepper, camphor, cinnamon, bees'-wax, and many woods, useful and ornamental.

Besides the Malays and other Mahomedans, Borneo Proper is inhabited, or rather infested by numerous tribes of barbarian savages, differring in dialect, and carrying on an incessant warfare. A small district, or even a village, here constitutes a nation, desiring nought but the heads of its neighbours. The races of most note are the following:—the Malays, Sooloos, Biajoos, Dasuns, Illanos, Kadayans, Bisayans, Maruts, Kalamuts, Tutungs, Kyajoos, Kayans, Dayaks, Tataos, Kanawuts, and Melandos. The unconverted tribes, in manners and customs bear a close

resemblance to each other. They wear only one piece of cotton or bark cloth round their loins, and usually nothing else; but the Kayan warriors occasionally wear also bear and leopard skin coats and caps. Their arms consist of a blow-pipe for discharging poisoned arrows, swords, spears, and long shields. At the chief town of the Kayan, who in the scale of Bornese greatness are a powerful people, some cannon and muskets are to be found. Some of the tribes are mischievous and ferocious, others less so, a few inoffensive, and even industrious; but in one ruling passion they are unanimous, *viz.* the pleasure of cutting off human heads, and then hoarding them as a family treasure. The origin of this practice, so universal among all the savage tribes from Bengal to the extremity of Papua, has not yet been traced, or its motives satisfactorily explained. Some of these tribes dwell in miserable huts covered with leaves; but the majority in houses of immense size, capable of accommodating from 50 to 200 persons; security from hostile attacks being apparently the object. Indeed the Bornean savages are far from the lowest stage of social existence, for they have all some knowledge of agriculture, and several understand even the smelting and manufacture of metals. They do not appear to have any system of religious belief, nor any gods, idols, priests, or temples; but apparently abundance of superstitious fears. None of the native Bornese tribes have any alphabet, which is remarkable, considering how universal alphabetical symbols are in all the other large islands, and argues a permanent inferiority, originating probably from its geographical figure, Borneo, like Africa, being a solid mass, without indenture by gulfs, bays, or inland seas.

In Borneo Proper the ruling and most civilized race is the Malay; yet, with all their converts to the Arabian faith, they are said not to compose more than the tenth part of the whole population. The Malayan emigration to this island is supposed to have taken place about the middle of the thirteenth century. The king is designated by the Hindoo title of rada (raja), with the epithet of iangdi per tuan (he who lords it); but his despotism is modified by select ministers who form his council, and from thirty to forty hereditary pangerans or nobles. This principality is generally reckoned of some duration, as it is alluded to in the annals or legends of Malacca as a proud and independent state. One proof of its antiquity is the high veneration for the prince's authority, found in all ancient Malay states, but in very few of recent origin.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Forrest, Crawfurd, &c.*)

Borneo Town.—This place is situated on the north-west coast of the island, ten miles up a river of the same name; lat. 4° 56′ N., lon. 114° 44′ E. The river is navigable for ships of burthen above the town, but the mouth is narrow, and has a bar, over which there is scarcely seventeen feet water at high tide. Up to the town the water is salt, and the flood runs at the rate of four miles per hour. In the middle there is six fathoms water, and here the Chinese junks lie moored, head and stern.

The houses of Borneo are built on each side of the river on posts, and are ascended to on stairs and ladders. It resembles Venice in having small water channels instead of streets. All the traffic is transacted on board of boats, which float up and down the river with the tide, and are in general managed by women. This city has long carried on a trade with China, the Sooloo Isles, the Philippines, the Straits of Malacca, the west coast of Borneo, and with the small principalities on the east side of the Malay peninsula. For some time past the China trade has been interrupted, but when in activity, two junks came from the province of Nanking, two from Limpo, two from

Amoy, one from Canton, and two Portuguese vessels from Macao. The intercourse between Borneo and Manilla was also formerly brisk: but of late years, on account of the prevailing anarchy, has declined like that of China. The Manilla trade was conducted chiefly by Bornese boats, who made the voyage from one place to the other in seven days. At present by far the most considerable commerce is that with Singapoor, which in 1825 employed forty prows.

Last century there was an English factory here, but for a number of years past Europeans have desisted from visiting this city, on account of its violent and anarchical government; but apparently the trade might be now with safety renewed. The commodities best adapted to this market are the following, *viz.* British and Indian cotton and woollen fabrics; opium for the native and Chinese markets, with iron, arms, and ammunition. The staple native exports are fine camphor, pepper (equal to 20,000 piculs), tortoiseshell, esculent roots, sea slug, mother of pearl shells, pearls, sago, woods for dyeing, for perfumes, and for ship-building. To these exports may be added teas, wrought and raw silks, nankins, camphor, and cassia, imported in the first instance from China. The Chinese traders construct their own junks here at a remarkably moderate expense per ton. The teak tree is not produced here; but a variety of excellent and durable woods, fit for all the purposes of naval architecture (more especially the camphor tree), are found in abundance.

In October 1825 a prow belonging to the king of Borneo Proper, above 200 tons burthen, arrived at Singapoor, having on board a diplomatic mission, consisting of the Orang Kaya Kayong, or lord of Kayong, the ambassador, and a suite of between 200 and 300 persons, who landed with much barbaric splendour. At that time there were sixteen Bornean trading vessels in the harbour of Singapoor, and the object of the embassy was to draw closer the bonds of amity between his Bornese majesty and the British nation; the whole indicating a material advance in civilization. The reigning raja was described by his subjects as a person of superior capacity, speaking Chinese, and deciding impartially.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Forrest, Elmore, &c.*)

Boro Budor.—A remarkable Buddhist temple in the island of Java, eighteen miles N.W. from Yugyacarta. Lat. 7° 44′ S., lon. 110° 8′ E. This edifice is supposed to have been built about A.D. 1338, and is a square structure of a pyramidical shape ending in a dome, situated in the mountainous province of Kedu. It embraces the summit of a small hill rising perpendicularly from the plain, and consists of a series of six square ascending walls, with corresponding terraces; three circular rows of latticed cages of hewn stone in the shape of beehives; and finally of the dome already mentioned, which, although without the apex that once crowned it, in 1815 was still twenty feet high. The height of the whole building is 116 feet, and at the base each side measures in extent 526 feet. The hill is in fact a sort of nucleus to the temple, having been cut away to suit the purpose, and there is no cavity in the whole mass except the dome. The outer and inner side of each wall are covered with a profusion of sculpture, and in various parts are niches containing above 300 figures of Buddha, and altogether within the precincts there were in 1815 near 400 images of that deity. There are four entrances to the temple facing the cardinal points of the compass, guarded by lions (an animal that never existed in Java) as warders.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Botol Tobago.—An island in the China seas, lying within sight E.S.E. from Formosa; but which does not appear to have been visited by any European navigator. Lat. 21° 50′ N., lon. 121° 57′ E.

Bourasinghy.—A town in the Northern Circars, thirty-seven miles S.W. from Ganjam. Lat. 19° N., lon. 84° 45′ E.

Boutan.—A high round island, with several smaller ones near it, lying off the north-east coast of the Malay peninsula. Lat. 6° 32′ N., lon. 99° 10′ E.

Bowal.—A small village in the province of Bengal, district of Dacca Jelalpoor, twenty miles N. by E. from the city of Dacca; lat. 23° 57′ N., lon. 90° 23′ E. The country surrounding this hamlet swarms with game of all sorts, among which may be enumerated elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, buffaloes, wild bears, deer of many varieties, foxes, hares, jackals, tiger-cats; and of the feathered tribes floricans (the *otis houbara* of Linnæus), peacocks, the domestic fowl in a wild state, different kinds of partridges, snipes, quail, wild ducks, teal, and wild pigeons.

Brahmaputra River.—*(Brahmaputra, son or offspring of Brahma.)* —For many years past this river, on the authority of Major Rennell and Capt. Turner, has been supposed to be a continuation of the Sanpoo of Tibet; but recent discoveries have tended to bring this conjecture into disrepute, at least so far as refers to the eastern branch, or Lúhit, the course of which has been traced until it diminishes to a shallow rocky stream, broken by rapids, among the range of mountains that bound Assam to the north-east. It has also been ascertained that Brahmacoond is not its source. Some geographers, however, expect that a connexion between the Brahmaputra and Sanpoo will still be established by means of the Dihong or western branch; but this appears improbable, both from the inconsiderable size of the Dihong at the furthest point to which it has been explored, and the mountainous chain (apparently a prolongation of the Himalaya) which seems to extend without interruption eastward far beyond the longitude of the Dihong. The question, however, will not remain much longer undecided, and it would be lost time at present to balance probabilities; for further information therefore respecting the upper course of this river the reader may examine the articles Assam and Sanpoo, what follows having principally reference to its lower course.

Proceeding west, the Brahmaputra reaches Goalpara, formerly the frontier town, where its expanse is magnificent and the scenery grand; but the water is extremely dirty, and the surface during the floods covered with a dusky foam, intermixed with logs of wood, vast floats of reeds, and a great variety of dead bodies, especially of men, deer, and cattle, which are scarcely less offensive to the senses than the half-burned human carcasses on the banks of the sacred Ganges.

Having quitted Assam, the Brahmaputra rushes to the notice of Europeans in the Rungpoor district with increased volume, a channel at least a mile broad, and when not encumbered with islands, continues in many places nearly the same width; but in many places these subdivide the channel into many parts and enlarge its size, so that from bank to bank there is often a distance of five miles. During the dry season in this part of its course, the water no where fills its channel, even where narrowest; in the wet season, except where there are a few scattered hills, the river everywhere overflows its banks, and in many parts deluges an extent of from twenty to thirty miles, insulating such small hills as are in the vicinity.

In the Rungpoor district the rise of the Brahmaputra usually commences in April, and in the beginning of May increases still further. This may be partly owing to the melting of the snow in the mountains; but in general the swelling of the river and the inundation are chiefly affected by the rains in the immediate neighbourhood. A few fair days always diminish its size, and it never rises much except after very heavy rain.

The rapidity and bulk of the river continue gradually to increase, and it attains its greatest elevation about the beginning of August, towards the end of which it subsides, and the current loses much of its force. The inundation contracts at the same time, and although the river rises once or twice in September and the beginning of October, it has never been known in these months to pass the bounds of its regular channel. Within the limits of Bengal the Brahmaputra is not fordable at any season, but its navigation is rendered difficult by the great number of sandbanks, and the trunks of trees half buried in its bed. Within the British territories the numberless islands and channels are undergoing incessant changes, and the like mutations may be expected to continue.

After entering Bengal the Brahmaputra makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to the south in the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which although not the tenth part of its magnitude, most unaccountably absorbs its name, and communicates its own to the huge mass of water, until they intermix with those of the Ganges near the Bay of Bengal. In 1809, the Brahmaputra threatened by a change of its course to carry away all the vicinity of Dewangunge, and perhaps to force its current into the Nattore jeels in the Rajeshahy district, which would very much disturb the modern geography of Bengal by submerging a vast extent of surface, while its old bed would become a morass.

During its journey through Bengal the Brahmaputra bears so intimate a relation to the Ganges, that one description suits both, except that during the last sixty miles above their junction, under the name of Megna, it forms a stream which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. The union of these two mighty rivers below Luckipoor now forms a gulf, interspersed with many islands, some equal in size to the Isle of Wight. The bore, which is a sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow strait, prevails in the principal branch of the Ganges and in the Megna; but the Hooghly river, and the passages between the islands and sandbanks situated in the gulf, formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, are more subject to it than other rivers.

Notwithstanding the great magnitude of the latter, it was unknown in Europe until 1765, as a capital river of India; nor did it ever among the Hindoos attain the same reputation for sanctity, or conciliate the same interest, as its female neighbour the Ganges. Among the Hindoos of Nepaul the name Brahmaputra is said to be applied to the Sanpoo; and in Assam, although the term is known, the great river, or at least that portion running south-west towards Bengal, is more commonly called Luhit. The name first mentioned signifies son or offspring of Brahma, the creator of the world, and its vast bulk in a figurative sense might entitle it to that appellation; but such is not the derivation of Hindoo mythologists. According to these sages, it owes its origin to an intrigue which took place between Brahma and Omegha, the wife of a holy man named Santona, the particulars of which, on account of their extravagant indecency, do not admit of narration.

Since the expulsion of the Burmese from Assam it has been found eligible to establish steam-boats on the Brahmaputra, and in 1826 the Court of Directors authorized the construction of machinery for two steamers of twenty-five horse power each, and drawing only three feet water. It was soon discovered that, owing to peculiar circumstances, these inventions were much more wanted on the Brahmaputra than even the Ganges, as on the first there is not only a vast space to be traversed, and a still more rapid current to be overcome; but it is also wholly without the favourable wind which for so many months in the year blows against the stream of the Ganges.

During the rains the prevailing wind along the Brahmaputra is quite adverse, being in the same direction with the stream, at least beyond the point of Dhombree, where it takes an easterly direction. The difficulty of tracking is also much greater along the Brahmaputra than the Ganges, as the continual traffic along the latter, and the uninterrupted occurrence of villages and cultivation, have made a regular road along its banks; whereas the channel of the Brahmaputra is bounded through very considerable intervals by dense and inhospitable jungles. One mile per day in such situations, and under such circumstances, is a fair average rate of advance; and a voyage from Dacca to Rungpoor, the former capital of Assam, has been found fully equal in duration to a voyage to Europe. Steam-boats will be able to overcome many obstacles that oppose the progress of common boats which they can drag up the river, carrying supplies of stores, troops, and functionaries.—(*F. Buchanan, Capt. Turner, Rennell, Public Journals, &c.*)

Brala.—A small island lying off the eastern coast of Malacca; lat. 4° 55′ N., lon. 103° 40′ E.

Bramadeo *(Brahma Deva)*.—A sacred spot on the west bank of the Goggra, in the great Saul forest at the foot of the Kumaon mountains, province of Delhi, about seventy-five miles N.E. from the town of Bareily. The river Goggra here penetrates the great northern barrier, and enters the plains of Rohilcund. In sublimity of scenery it yields nothing to the Ganges at Hurdwar, although the landscape has less expanse, and is of a wilder and darker character. The Goggra here rushes in a deep and beautiful rapid through a narrow ravine confined by precipitous mountains, over a bed of white pebbles, reflecting from its surface the vivid green hue of the primeval woods that overshadow it.

Bramadeo, however, has not been so fortunate as Hurdwar in attracting the notice of superstition, for one sacred peepul tree, with a small stone basement built round its trunk, is not only the sole temple, but almost the only memorial of time or humanity to be found here. The most direct thoroughfare between Bareily, and the British stations of Chumpawut and Lohoo ghaut, in Kumaon, is by this sequestered spot, in consequence of which a small commissariat dépôt was soon after its conquest established here, and a pathway five feet wide opened through the hills, which although steep and difficult, is still practicable to foot passengers during the greater part of the year. More recently the dépôt has been withdrawn; the jungle has re-spread to the margin of the river, and the spot abandoned to the wild beasts, its prior inhabitants.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Brambanan.—A village in the island of Java, province of Mataram, between the two native capitals of Suracarta and Yugyacarta, and three miles N.N.E. from the latter; lat. 7° 49′ S., lon. 110° 25′ E.

At this place are many extraordinary remains of Hindoo images, temples, and inscriptions, and more especially of the remarkable group named the "thousand temples," which occupies an oblong area of 600 feet by 550, and consists of four rows of small temples, enclosing in the centre a great edifice sixty feet high. The temples are pyramidical buildings, all of the same character, covered with a profusion of sculpture, and consisting of large blocks of hewn stone. Each of the small temples contained an image of Buddha, and in the great centre one, divided into several apartments, Siva figures, or some of his attributes. To the whole group there are four entrances, facing the cardinal points of the compass, each guarded by two gigantic statues representing warders, which measure, in a kneeling posture, not less than nine and a half feet high by eleven in girth.

The constructors of Brambanan evidently possessed the art of turning an eliptical arch and vault, but a

circular arch or vault is no where found among the ruins. There is manifestly a regular design, not only in every group or cluster, but also in every single temple; and the excellence of the materials, their great solidity, and the labour exerted to complete them, are deserving of admiration. The walls are covered with innumerable ornaments in alto and basso-relievo, yet without indecency, and scarcely any thing fantastical or absurd, except the deities themselves. There are a great many images of Buddha, but the temples of Brambanan appear to have been consecrated to Siva, his images, together with those of Durga and Ganesa (his wife and son), being found in such extraordinary abundance. It has been conjectured that the earliest temples of Brambanan were built about A.D. 1188, and the most recent about 1218.—(*Crawfurd, &c.*)

Brewer's Straits.—Narrow straits in the eastern seas, that separate the large island of Panchu from the north-eastern coast of Sumatra. The northern entrance is formed by the island of Bauculis and the main land of Sumatra; lat. 1° 36′ N., lon. 102° E.

Broach (*Barigosha*).—A British district in the Gujerat provinces, situated principally between the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the Gulf of Cambay. This is one of the best cultivated and populated tracts on the west coast of India, and was finally acquired by the Bombay presidency at the treaty of peace concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia, in December 1803. As a particular favour the Peshwa was then allowed to retain Allmood Jumbosier and Dubboi, being old fiefs of his family; but after his expulsion in 1817, these also, together with Dejbarah and Bahadurpoor, were incorporated with the Broach zillah.

Being so conveniently situated, the Bombay presidency made many, and not very honest, attempts to obtain this district, and had possession of it for a short time prior to 1782, but were compelled to offer it privately as a bribe to Madhajee Sindia, to procure his concurrence to the treaty of Salbey. Since its final cession in 1803, with the exception of a few Bheel incursions, it has enjoyed uninterrupted tranquillity; but so many changes have taken place in its territorial dimensions, that a statement of its revenue conveys little information as to its real condition. In 1818 the jumma or assessment to the land revenue, was rupees 17,35,085; in 1819, rupees 17,55,872; and in 1820, rupees 21,91,576.

In the old portion of the Broach district there are no Mewassies, few Grassias; little variety in the soil, produce, or modes of assessment; no unauthorized alienations, and no taxes of the slightest importance except the land-tax. The revenue system has been long established, and preserved unaltered, and the courts of justice work well, and are sufficiently comprehended by all classes. The country, however, has not improved in appearance so much as might have been expected; hedges and trees are rarely seen except close to villages, which last are clumsily built of unburned bricks, and very inferior to those seen beyond the Myhie. In 1812 the population of the Broach pergunnah consisted of

Hindoos	60,448	= 76,343
Mahomedans	15,895	
Broach town		32,716
Oclaseer pergunnah and town.....		29,969
Hansoot do.....do.....		18,955
Total.....		157,983

(*Elphinstone, Romer, &c.*)

Broach.—A large and ruinous city in the province of Gujerat, the capital of the above district, situated on an eminence on the banks of the Nerbudda, twenty-five miles from its entrance; lat. 21° 46′ N., lon. 73° 14′ E. It is said to derive its appellation from the Hindoo saint, devotee, or demigod, Bhrigu, and ought

properly to be written Bhrigu Khetra, or Bhrigupura, the town or place of Bhrigu. It is also thought to have been the Barygaza of the ancients, and when it surrendered to the Emperor Acber, in 1572, still continued a port of great trade. It is mentioned by Sidi Ali in A.D. 1554.

The houses are here built like those at Surat and Cambay, the streets generally narrow and dirty, and in the vicinity are many dilapidated mosques and mausoleums. Being situated in a fertile country, it is plentifully supplied with provisions and game, and the Nerbudda, which washes its southern wall, abounds with carp and other fish. A considerable traffic is carried on with Surat and Bombay, principally in raw cotton, grain, and seeds of all sorts, in boats with large lateen sails. In 1812 the population by actual enumeration was found to be, Hindoos 19,836; Mahomedans 9,888; Parsees 2,992; total 32,716 persons. Since the above period, however, it has probably much declined, as in 1824 it is described as a poor, dilapidated, hot and unhealthy place. The Nerbudda here is two miles across at ebb tide, but very shallow, and admits only vessels of small burthen beyond the bar at Tunkaria. A seabreeze sometimes comes up with the flowing tide, but is not always to be depended on. The climate of Gujerat, and of the other provinces under the Bombay presidency, Poona perhaps excepted, are more generally unfavourable to the preservation of European health and strength than those of the other two presidencies.

In 1807 there were twenty-five nats or societies in Broach, of the Banyan caste, comprehending 5,261 individuals of both sexes. At this place there is a pinjrapole, or hospital for animals, supported by donations from the Hindoo inhabitants. Every marriage and mercantile transaction is taxed for the pinjrapole, by which above £1,000 is raised annually; a great proportion of which is absorbed into the coffers of the managers. The only expensive animals it at present contains are milch cows, which repay the expense of their keeping. It was formerly reported that beggars were hired by the managers, that the lice and similar insects might feed on them; but in 1824 the officiating Brahmins declared this to be a calumny, in as much as every animal whatever was fed on vegetable food.

By the treaty concluded with the Peshwa and the combined Maharatta powers in June 1782, the city and pergunnah of Broach were ceded to the East-India Company; but next month of the same year they were made over to Madhajee Sindia, ostensibly as a recompense for his humane treatment of the British prisoners and hostages who surrendered at Wurgaum; but in reality for his assistance in bringing about the pacification, which at that period, on account of Hyder's invasion of the Carnatic, was most urgently wanted. In 1772 Broach was besieged by an army from Bombay, commanded by Gen. Wedderburne (Lord Loughborough's brother), who was killed under the walls; but a few days after the general's death, although then a place of considerable strength, it was taken by storm. After the death of Madhajee Sindia, it devolved to his nephew and successor, Dowlet Row Sindia, from whom it was taken in 1803, and has ever since remained with the British government. Travelling distance from Bombay, 221 miles; from Oojein, 266; and from Poona, 287 miles.—(*Drummond, Wilford, Moore, Rennell, Romer, &c.*)

Brooang Pass *(or Burendo)*.—A pass through the Himalaya mountains, near the course of the Sutuleje, 15,095 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 31° 23′ N., lon. 78° 12′ E. The country in this neighbourhood is extremely rugged, and the population thinly scattered, in villages situated at a great distance from each other; they are, however, in general large, and the houses (built of stone and wood, and sometimes slated) spacious. The people are described as

dark in their complexions and dirty in their habits, but their temples are said to be of a superior description. —(*Lieut. Gerard, &c.*)

Buboorara.—A village in the province of Sinde, situated on the road from Hyderabad to Luckputbunder, about twenty-four miles to the north of the latter; lat. 24° 10′ N., lon. 69° 2′ E. This place stands on the edge of the Runn, and during the dry season is abandoned by the inhabitants. —(*Maxfield, &c.*)

Bubrooa.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Jeypoor Raja, fifteen miles distant from his capital. In 1820 it was said to contain 2,000 houses.

Bucclesore.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Birbhoom, seven miles from the ruins of the ancient city of Nagore. At this place is the most copious hot springs met with in this quarter of the Vindhyan range, its waters forming a running stream of considerable size; it is also the hottest, as in January 1819 it raised a thermometer, immersed, to 152° Fahrenheit. The water exhales a strong sulphureous smell, and reservoirs have been built to receive them. A street of above 100 diminutive pagodas has been raised along the margin, with the usual picturesque accompaniment of venerable burgot trees, and a host of officiating Brahmins.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Buchone.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty-seven miles W. by S. from Callinjer; lat. 25° 2′ N., lon. 80° 7′ E.

Buckar *(or Bhukkur)*.—A small town in the province of Lahore, frequently the residence of the hakim, or governor of the Leia district, situated within a few miles of the Indus; lat. 31° 38′ N., lon. 70° 40′ E.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Buckatghur *(or Wuckutghur)*.—A town and small fort in the province of Malwa, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda; lat. 22° 15′ N., lon. 76° 21′ E.

Buckrah.—A town in the province of Bahar, district of Tirhoot, thirty-two miles north from Patna; lat. 26° 4′ N., long. 85° 10′ E.

Buckrah.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, situated on the banks of the Buckrah jeel, or Lackshmisar lake, the theme of a popular and indecent Hindostany song; twenty-three miles north-west from Goruckpoor; lat. 26° 4′ N., lon. 85° 10′ E.

Budanghur.—A fortified post in Northern Hindostan, twenty-six miles N. by W. from Almora, lat. 30° N., lon. 79° 31′ E., 8,242 feet above the level of the sea.

Budayoon *(Budavan)*.—A town in the province of Delhi, district of Bareily, twenty-nine miles south-west from Bareily; lat. 28° 4′ N., lon. 78° 58′ E. It was first conquered by the Mahomedans in A.D. 1203, when it was in a flourishing condition; and it is mentioned by Abul Fazel in the institutes of Acber, as a place of celebrity; but its importance has long ceased, and it is remarkable only for its antiquity.

Buddha Gaya.—Remarkable ruins in the province and district of Bahar, situated a few hundred yards west of the Nilajan river, in a plain of great extent, about five miles from Gaya Proper. They now consist of confused heaps of brick and stone, which exhibit some traces of having been once regularly arranged; but immense quantities of the materials have been removed, and the remainder are almost shapeless. The building here called the temple of Buddha is a lofty brick edifice, resembling at a distance a huge glass-house, and now so honeycombed with age, as to excite surprise that it continues erect. Buddha Gaya was probably at one time the centre of a religion, and capital of a powerful king; but the sect of Buddha in this neighbourhood may be considered as completely extinct, yet a few persons come occasionally from distant countries to visit its monuments. The most remarkable modern edifice is a convent of Sanyassies.

On the terrace behind the temple a peepul tree is growing which the orthodox suppose to have been planted by Brahma; the Buddhists, on the contrary, assert that it was planted by Dugdha Kamini, king of Singhal Dwipa, 414 years before the birth of our Saviour, and 125 before the building of the temple, and that it is placed exactly in the centre of the earth. The tree in 1812 was in full vigour, and appeared to be about 100 years of age; but a similar one may have existed in the same place when the temple was entire; a circular elevation of brick has been raised round its root, in various concentric circles, and on one end of these has been placed a confused heap of images and carved fragments of stone, taken from the ruins. Indeed the number of images scattered about this place, for fifteen or twenty miles, in all directions, is almost incredible; yet they all appear to have originally belonged to the great temple or its vicinity, which seems to have been the grand quarry for the whole, and carried from thence to different places. Many of these images are now worshipped by the Brahminical Hindoos, and many of the attributes of their gods have apparently the same origin; but this people, with all their religious zeal, are most unaccountably careless in many respects, worshipping males under female names, and unequivocal images of Buddha, as an orthodox deity. Besides inscriptions establishing the Buddhist origin of many of these images, they may be distinguished by the enormous size and distension of their ears, and also by a mark on the palm of the hand and soles of the feet, which is supposed to resemble the lotus flower.—(*F. Buchanan, Fullarton, &c.*)

Buddegaum *(Buddhagrama)*.—A town in the province of Agra, district of Narwar, with a stone ghurry. In 1820 it belonged to Sindia, and contained about 1,000 houses.

Buddoo *(Buddha)*.—A village in the Lahore province, formerly tributary to the Raja of Jamboe, sixty-one miles N. by E. from Amritsir; lat. 22° 26′ N., lon. 75° E. An annual fair is held here on the 5th April.

Buddruck *(Vadarica)*.—A town in the province of Orissa, situated on the north bank of the Cewah or Solundee river, which at one season of the year is fordable here, and at another 300 yards broad; lat. 21° 7′ N., lon. 86° 26′ E., thirty-eight miles S.S.W. from Balasore. From this part of Orissa come most of the people termed in Calcutta Balasore bearers.—(*1st Register, &c.*)

Budgebudge *(Bhujabhuj)*.—A small town in the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly, ten miles below Calcutta in a straight line, but almost double that number following the windings of the river; lat. 22° 29′ N., lon. 88° 20′ E.

During the reign of Seraje ud Dowlah, the last independent nabob of Bengal, this station had a separate fortress, which on the 29th of December 1756 was besieged in form, and a breach effected, by the forces under Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, who intended a general assault before day break. During the night, however, it was most informally stormed by a sailor named Strahan, who happening to get drunk, wandered up to the breach and fired a pistol at some of the garrison: who not doubting but he was followed by the whole army, fled out by the opposite side, and left him in possession of the place. This little fort is still in existence, and may be traced, but with difficulty, its area being so choked up with grass jungle as to be scarcely accessible. A more exotic and useful structure at Budgebudge in 1820 was a good English tavern, the only one on the banks of the Hooghly except at Calcutta.—(*Ives, Fullarton, &c.*)

Budgeroons.—Three small islets in the Eastern seas in the straits of Salayr, off the southern extremity of Celebes. The passage is between the southernmost and central one, and is about a mile broad.

BUDHAN DHOORA.—A mountain peak in Northern Hindostan, eighteen miles S.W. from Almora; lat. 29° 28′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.; 8,502 feet above the level of the sea.

BUDNAWUR.—A town in the province of Malwa, thirty-one miles north from Dhar, which in 1820 contained 734 houses. Lat. 23° 2′ N., lon. 76° 17′ E. It is the head of a pergunnah of the same name which at the above date comprehended 150 villages, and a population of 31,119 persons. Of these villages twenty-two belonged to the Dhar principality; the rest to twelve Rajpoot families tributary to that chief, but each independent within his own limits. The town of Budnawar is surrounded by a mud wall in bad repair, and there is also a fort where the Mundlovee resides. In 1820 the town and district afforded a revenue of 92,271 rupees, which was on the rise, as the villages were flourishing and population increasing. —(*Malcolm, &c.*)

BUDNAPOOR.—A town in the province of Aurungabad, twenty-six miles E. of the city of Aurungabad; lat. 19° 54′ N., lon. 75° 57′ E.

BUDRA RIVER *(bhadra, excellent)*. —This river has its source in a hilly district of the Mysore province, not far from the frontiers of Coorg, from whence it flows in a northerly direction until it joins the Tunga river; their junction forming the Tungabhadra or Toombudra river.

BUGANO.—An island about fifty miles in circumference, lying off the south-eastern coast of Sumatra; lat. 5° 20′ S., lon. 102° 25′ E. There is no fresh water to be had on the east side of this island.

BUGGESSES.—See BONY and CELEBES.

BUGGROO.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, eighteen miles S.W. from Jeypoor; lat. 26° 50′ N., lon. 75° 15′ E. This place is surrounded by groves of the tara palm, a rare sight in these inhospitable plains; yet the soil does not appear radically bad, and water is found not far from the surface.

BUGHAT.—A petty lordship (one of twelve) in Northern Hindostan, situated in the tract between the Sutuleje and Jumna; bounded on the west by the Pinjore valley, and to the east and south by Sirmore. It contains the forts of Rajghur, Ajmanghur, Tuxal, Lukchaynpoor, and Thuroo. Mahindra Singh, who reigned in 1817, prior to the British conquest, paid the Gorkhas a tribute of 2,000 rupees per annum; but having by his conduct during the war forfeited all claim for the restitution of his territories, a certain portion was retained to compensate for the expense incurred.—(*Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BUGWAH.—A small town and ghurry in the province of Allahabad, twenty-five miles S.E. from Teary; lat. 24° 25′ N., lon. 79° 9′ E.

BUGWARA.—A town in the province of Candeish, eighty-seven miles west from Boorhanpoor; lat. 21° 21′ N., lon. 74° 56′ E. In 1816 it belonged to Holcar, and contained 300 houses.—(*Sutherland, &c.*)

BUITENZORG.—A district in the island of Java, which, according to a census taken by the British government in 1815, contained 76,312 persons, of which number 2,633 were Chinese. It then occupied an area of 2,411 square miles. The village of Buitenzorg, the country residence of the governor of Java, stands in lat. 6° 39′ S., lon. 106° 50′ E., thirty-six miles travelling distance south from Batavia. Being placed at the base of the blue mountains, the air here is cool and healthy, but invalids suffer from the profusion of rain which falls here almost every evening.—(*Thorn, Raffles, &c.*)

BUJANA.—A town in the province of Gujerat, division of Jutwar, situated on the banks of the Runn, which here in the month of December is in many places merely moist sand, and in others an extensive sheet of shallow water; lat. 23° 5′ N., lon. 71° 50′ E.

BULDEAH.—A town in the province of Malwa, surrounded by a mud

wall, and containing a ghurry or native fortification, ten miles N.N.W. from Turrote.

Bulindshehr *(the lofty city)*.—A town in the Delhi province, forty-one miles S.E. from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 25′ N., lon. 77° 43′ E.

Bulluah.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Goruckpoor, forty-two miles S.E. from the town of Goruckpoor; lat. 26° 45′ N., lon. 83° 19′ E.

Bullum.—A small district in Mysore, situated about lat. 13° N. above the western ghauts, partly comprehended in the British jurisdiction of Canara, and partly within the territories of the Mysore Raja. The external appearance of the three divisions of Bullum, Coorg, and Bednore nearly resemble each other, being all composed of high hills and deep vallies. The mountains are mostly bare, but the ravines are covered with jungle, and in many places by primeval forests, inhabited by a great variety of wild animals. In fact, although nominally under subjection to the former sovereigns of Mysore, it never was effectually conquered until military roads were made through it by the Duke of Wellington, in 1801-2. The duration of the rains, which commence about the middle of May and continue until November, give rise to a multitude of rivers, which flow in various directions the whole year. The waters that descend from these elevated regions to the westward, proceed to the Indian ocean through the provinces of Malabar and Canara. Bullum contains no town, or even village of any consequence.

Bullumghur.—A town and fortress in the province of Delhi, twenty-one miles south from the city of Delhi; lat. 28° 23′ N., lon. 77° 10′ E. The fort has high brick walls, strengthened with a deep ditch and high mud bastions. Within is a small crowded, but tolerable well-built town, with narrow streets, tall houses, and many temples. The raja has a neat palace built round a small court, with a marble fountain in the centre. The Bullumghur chief holds a considerable territory as feudatory to the British government, on condition of maintaining a body of troops to assist the police, and repress all incursions of the Mewatties and other predatory tribes. The family and most of the people are Jauts. In 1819 the late Raja of Bullumghur died, leaving an infant son; in consequence of which the management of this small principality was entrusted by the British government to Raja Kooar Singh, the great uncle of the deceased Raja.

Bulrampour.—A town in the province of Oude, forty-two miles N. from Fyzabad; lat. 27° 24′ N., lon. 82° 4′ E.

Bulsaur.—A large and populous seaport on the high road to Bombay, forty-five miles S. by W. from Surat; lat. 20° 36′ N., lon. 73° 5′ E. A considerable trade is carried on in grain, jaggry, and timber. The manufactures consist mostly of coarse doties, baftaes, and ginghams. The principal produce of the pergunnah is rice and sugar-cane; but there is still a large proportion of waste and unoccupied land.—(*Morrison, &c.*)

Bulsun.—A petty chiefship in Northern Hindostan, situated between the Sutuleje and Jumna, on the left bank of the Girree river, whence it extends eastward to the frontiers of Joobul, by which it is also bounded to the south; to the north it joins Koteghur. Lat. 31° 5′ N., lon. 77° 28′ E., forty-two miles N. by E. from Nahan.

Bulteira Ghaut.—A ghaut on the Nerbudda river, province of Malwa, fordable in March. The river here is wide but shallow, and on its south bank stands the small village of Bulteira. In this neighbourhood there are many other fords formerly well known to the Pindaries.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bulu China *(named from a species of bamboo)*.—A small native state

on the east coast of Sumatra, subordinate to Delli, situated on a river of the same name, flowing almost parallel with the Delli river. In 1823 this village contained only eighty houses, but there were many others scattered along the river banks, of which Soonghal was the largest and most commercial. Further inland the Battas and the Karankaran tribes are numerous, and industrious cultivators. The exports are pepper (raised by the Battas), gambir, tobacco, and slaves; the imports are small quantities of every thing, but more especially opium and cotton goods. A traffic is also carried on quite across Sumatra to Sinkel, on the opposite shore. The country is naturally rich and productive, but, except on the banks of the rivers, scantily populated. A Malay here is reckoned rich who possesses 2,000 dollars.—(*Anderson, &c.*)

Bunahee.—A good-sized town in the province of Ajmeer, situated at the foot of a range of hills nineteen miles south from Nusseerabad; lat. 26° 8′ N., lon. 74° 38′ E. On an adjoining rock is a little old castle, with some trees round its base, which are very ornamental in this parched country.

Bunaisor (*Vaniswara*).—A decayed town in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, situated some miles west of the great Juggernauth road, and about eighteen miles S. by W. from the town of Cuttack. The temple of Mahadeva (or Siva) at this place is said to surpass in dimensions the pagoda at Juggernauth, and numerous other temples and ruins of an ancient city are dispersed throughout the neighbouring jungles.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Bunchang.—A town in the interior of Siam, situated on the Meklong river, which flows south into the Menam, and in 1826 contained about 4,000 inhabitants, mostly Chinese. It is supposed to be the Banxang of the Lettres édifiantes.

Bunchiom.—A considerable town in the interior of Siam, above Bankok, situated at the junction of the Meklong with the Sissovat river, which here comes from the north. In 1826 it contained about 5,000 inhabitants.—(*Leal, &c.*)

Bunchoola.—A ruined native fort in Northern Hindostan, twenty-three miles north of Almora; lat. 29° 53′ N., lon. 79° 6′ E., and 4,083 feet above the level of the sea.

Bundara.—A town in the province of Gundwana, dominions of Nagpoor, situated on the Wyne Gunga river, 872 feet above the level of the sea.

Bundlecund (*the country of the Bundelas*).—A large division of the Allahabad province, situated principally between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. On the north it has the river Jumna; on the south parts of Berar and Malwa; on the east Baghelcund; and on the west Sindia's territories. It extends from 77° 48′ to 81° 33′ E., and from 24° 3′ to 26° 26′ N., and contains altogether 23,817 miles, with a population of 2,400,000 persons.

The mountains of this tract extend in continuous ranges parallel to each other, each successively buttressing a table-land, one above the other, and here designated by the name of ghauts. The first of these ranges is called the Bindhyachal (or Vindhya) mountains, which commence at Kesoghur, and make a circuitous sweep until they approach the Ganges at Surajghur and Rajamahal. The plains of Bundlecund resemble a vast bay of the ocean, formed by natural barriers and crowned with fortresses. The progressive elevation from the Jumna is towards the apex of the bay, but the highest summit does not exceed 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. The second range, called the Panna ghauts, runs parallel to the Vindhyachal, preserving a distance of about ten miles; the third, named the Bandair, is the most elevated portion of the province.

The principal rivers are the Ken, Desan, and Betwa. Large artificial

reservoirs, such as the lakes of Burwa Saugor, Arjal, Birsangur, Naudanwar, Bomori, Jhatara, Gurrah, and Bhind. These are immense piles of masonry, in some instances constructed to stop the current of a stream, in order to raise it to a higher level and force it to expand for the purposes of irrigation. There are not any forests in this district, the most valuable productions of the hills (besides diamonds) being bamboos, iron, drugs, gums, the chironja nut, and catechu or terra japonica. The diamond mines are situated in the table-land near Panna, and are the exclusive property of the Panna Raja; but no gems of superior quality have been discovered for many years past. A coarse cotton cloth dyed red is the principal manufacture; at Calpee sugar-candy and paper, and at Jhansi a carpet manufactory. A coarse kind of sacking is woven along the banks of the Betwa, and at Chatterpoor, which supplies wrappers for the merchandize passing from the Deccan.

The soil of Bundlecund exhibits every variety, from the rich black loam to the sterile conkar. The valleys and low lands are generally of the first, and when properly watered, produce in abundance almost every grain and plant of Hindostan. In the more barren tracts millet, panic, and paspelum are grown; but even these inferior sorts, in times of scarcity, are not attainable by the poorer classes, with whom the fruit of the bassia latifolia, sometimes mixed with the deleterious bark of the katbal tree, is the wretched, and almost poisonous substitute. In 1815, according to the returns made to the Marquis of Hastings, the district of Bundlecund contained 21,18,991 small begas in cultivation, which yielded a revenue of 29,01,510 rupees, or about one rupee six annas per bega. There were also 8,94,387 begas fit for cultivation.

There are not any remarkable buildings now extant, but some remarkable ruins, such as those at Mahoba; Cajram, near Rajanagur; at Malhan above the hills, near Jodhpoor; and at Sirswaghur, near Saleya, on the Pohawaj. Among the natural curiosities may be reckoned the subterraneous cavern near Chittracote; another in the hills near Bijawer; the cataract of Bedhak, near Calyanghur; and of the rivers, Paisuni, Bhagi, and Ranj rivers; but the objects most deserving of notice are certainly the hill forts of Callinjer and Ajyghur.

The principal Hindoo religious establishment is at Chittracote, on the Paisuni river, and there are Jain temples at Senawal and Kandalpoor; but the most singular is at Panna, founded by an enthusiast named Jee Sauheb, who declared himself to be the Imaum Mehedi mentioned in the koran, to which Jee Sauheb's book, named the Kulzam, is intended to be a sort of appendix. His followers, named also Dhamians, are to be found in the Punjab, in Gujerat, Delhi, Lucknow, Benares, Mathura, Fyzabad, Nagpoor, and Hyderabad: but Panna is their Mecca. The peculiar dialect called Bundlecundy is spoken in a tract lying due west of Allahabad, and along the banks of the Jumna from Meno to Calpee. It is a Sanscrit derivative, and meets the Malwa on the west, the Bruj on the north, and the Maharatta on the south.

The principal towns of Bundlecund are Banda, the head-quarters of the magistrate, Callinjer, Teary, Jyhtpoor, Chatterpoor, Jhansi, Dulteen, and Bejaour. The British possessions extend along the line of the river Jumna, from the Allahabad district to that of Etaweh, and from the Jumna southward to the frontier of the native states. They contain 4,685 square miles, including the pergunnah of Koonch, and have a population of about 700,000 inhabitants. The states of the native chiefs or rajas of Bundlecund occupy the remainder of the space, under different chiefs, protected by the British government. These small principalities are numerous, and some of them extensive. For the convenience of fiscal and political arrangements

the whole province has been recently divided into two districts, named north and south Bundlecund. The British government, in their treaties, took care never to relinquish the right of interference for the correction of acts of gross and flagrant violence and oppression committed by any of the dependent Bundelah chiefs, even against their own subjects, such a right necessarily flowing from the relations subsisting between the parties, and cannot be renounced without depriving the British government of one of the most powerful means of rendering its paramount authority conducive to the welfare and tranquillity of the country: to be exercised, however, with extreme forbearance and circumspection.—(*Captain T. Franklin, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Bundermalanca *(Bander maha Lanca).*—A town in the Northern Circars, fifty-four miles E.N.E. from Masulipatam. Lat. 16° 26′ N., lon. 81° 59′ E.

Bunderpooch *(A monkey's tail).*—The third peak of the Jumnowtri or Bunderpooch mountain, in the Himalaya, marked black E. in Capt. Hodson and Lieut. Herbert's survey, is thus named by the natives. It stands in lat. 31° 1′ N., lon. 78° 33′ E., and is a conspicuous object viewed from Saharunpoor. Elevation above the level of the sea 21,155 feet. The name of Bunderpooch applies only to the highest peak, all the subordinate peaks and ridges having peculiar names.—(*Hodson, Herbert, &c.*)

Bunghur.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gundwana, dependent on Sumbhulpoor, seventy-two miles N.W. from Sumbhulpoor. In 1818, it was assessed in money by Major Roughsedge at 1,500 Sumbhulpoor rupees.

Bunhutghaut.—A pass in the province of Malwa through a chain of jungly hills lying in a north-west direction from Ratghur. Lat. 23° 26′ N.

Bunjaree Ghaut.—A pass among the hills in the province of Gundwana, 115 miles S.W. from Ruttunpoor. Lat. 21° 8′ N., lon. 81° 7′ E. This spot is of such an elevation that it causes the rivers to take opposite courses.—(*Leckie, &c.*)

Bunkora.—A town in the province of Gujerat, principality of Doongerpoor, about seventeen miles E. by S. from that town. In 1821 it belonged to a Rajpoot chieftain named Pertaub Singh.

Bunkoulee.—In 1815 a large and apparently populous village in northern Hindostan, sixty-six miles N.W. from Serinagur. Lat. 30° 49′ N., lon. 78′ E.—(*Jas. Frazer, &c.*)

Bunnee *(Bhuni).*—A section of the Runn thus named, extending along the northern boundary of Cutch and skirting the desert, which in some places is seven miles broad. This space is never cultivated, being reserved for the grazing of cattle on account of its excellent pasturage. The Bunnee is the receptacle of the water accumulated by the monsoon torrents, and by the stream of the Luckput river, after the subsidence of which it becomes an extensive and luxuriant meadow. In ancient times the river Indus is said to have flowed into this space, where it formed the lake of Narrain Sir, now a small fountain worshipped by the Hindoos.

Bunraree Temple.—A small temple in Northern Hindostan, ten miles S.E. from Serinagur. Lat. 30° 9′ N., lon. 78° 53′ E.; 6,950 feet above the level of the sea.

Buntwalla.—A town in the province of Canara, fifteen miles E. from Mangalore. Lat. 12° 54′ N., lon. 74° 50′ E.

Bunwoot.—An island about eighteen miles in circumference, lying off Pollok harbour, in Magindanao; lat. 7° 14′ N., lon. 124° 28′ E. On the 12th of September 1775, this island was ceded to Capt. Thomas Forrest, by the sultan and government of Magindanao, the grant being written in

Spanish by a native of Pampanga, once a slave, but who obtained his liberty by turning Mahomedan. Bunwoot is covered with tall trees, clear of underwood, and at the date of the grant was uninhabited. There are few springs, but many ponds of fresh rain water, and the interior abounds with wild hogs, monkeys, guanas and small snakes about eighteen inches long. In this state it probably remains, as it never was taken possession of.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

BURAGONG.—A small town in the province of Agra, fifteen miles S. by E. from Jaloun. Lat. 25° 58′ N., lon. 79° 20′ E.

BURDAIWUD.—A small town in the province of Malwa, belonging to Ghuffoor Khan, which in 1820 contained 400 houses, nine miles and a half N.N.W. from Khachrode.

BURDEE.—A town in the province of Gundwana, situated on the south bank of the Sone river, here a very diminutive stream, thirty-eight miles S. from the city of Mirzapoor. Lat. 24° 36′ N., lon. 82° 27′ E. The Burdee fort is of stone, and stands on a high abrupt hill washed by the Goput. There is another small fort not far off, named Bhoparee. The Burdee Raja's territories are much intermixed with those of the British government, and in some parts are tolerably well cultivated; but in the vicinity of the chief town the surrounding country has a most desolate aspect.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

BURDWAN (*Varhdaman, productive*).—A district in the province of Bengal, situated between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Birboom and Rajeshahy; on the south by Midnapoor and Hooghly; and on the west by Midnapoor and Ramghur. In 1784 this district contained 5,174 square miles, according to Major Rennell's mensuration; but it has since undergone various modifications, which have so greatly reduced its dimensions, that in 1814 Mr. Bailey computed its area at only 2,400 square miles.

Along with the other ceded lands it became subject to the British government so early as 1760, since which it has thriven so prosperously, that, in proportion to its extent, it may safely be considered as the most productive and populous territory of India. It is environed by the jungles of Midnapoor, Pachete, and Birboom, appearing like a garden surrounded by a wilderness. The most valuable articles are: sugar, indigo, pawn, cotton, tobacco, and mulberry trees, all of which have progressively increased in quantity. Many of the principal zemindars reside in Calcutta, and have their estates managed by agents. There are a considerable number of native merchants, who deal in tobacco, salt, grain, and cloth, and commerce has been greatly facilitated by the opening of three grand roads from the interior. Burdwan, although so opulent, not having the advantage of inland navigation, like most of the adjoining districts.

The original zemindary or estate, known by the name of Burdwan, came to the present family about A.D. 1722, and in 1790 paid a yearly rent to government of £400,000, but at present no property of any magnitude belongs to the raja, except the zemindary, greatly curtailed, and scarcely yielding him more than five per cent. on the land tax. The other chief, the Raja of Bissunpoor, has nothing left but his title, a great proportion of his estate having been sold for arrears of revenue, and the rest usually continuing under attachment from the same cause. There are few villages here in which there is not a school where children are taught to read and write; but there are no regular schools for instruction in the Hindoo or Mahomedan law. The most learned professors of the first are procured from the district of Nuddea, on the opposite side of the Hooghly, from whence and from Benares the other stations are also supplied. The Mahomedans bear a considerable proportion to the mass of

the inhabitants, and receive their education in the common branches from the village schoolmasters.

In 1814 Mr. Bayley, then judge and magistrate of Burdwan, endeavoured to ascertain, with an approach to accuracy, the exact number of inhabitants within his jurisdiction. In prosecution of this undertaking, the proprietors of every village were furnished, through the police officers of each division, with a form in the Bengalese language, in which to insert the total number of dwelling houses in each village, and the proportion respectively occupied by Mahomedans and Hindoos. These papers were accordingly circulated, and after being thus prepared, were attested by the proprietor or his agent, and also by some of the most respectable village occupants, no reluctance to communicating information appearing on the part of any of these individuals. The result of these statements, when collected and examined, tended to establish the following facts, *viz.* that in 1814 the Burdwan district contained 262,634 dwelling-houses, of which 218,153 were occupied by Hindoos, and 43,781 by Mahomedans; and allowing five persons and a half to each house, that the total population of Burdwan amounted to 1,444,487 persons.

In 1814 the area of the Burdwan district, as it then existed, comprehended 2,400 English square miles, giving an average of 600 persons per square mile. The total population of England in 1811 gave an average of nearly 200 inhabitants to the square mile; but on examining the county of Lancaster exclusively, with an area of 1,800 square miles, it then contained 856,000 inhabitants, or 476 to the square mile; and in the census of 1821 the proportion was above 500 persons.—(*W. B. Bayley, J. Grant, Colebrooke, &c.*)

Burdwan.—A town in the province of Bengal, the capital of the preceding district, and head-quarters of the government establishment; sixty miles N.N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 23° 15′ N., lon. 87° 57′ E. In 1814, when its circumstances were investigated by Mr. Bayley, 7,651 houses were found inhabited by Hindoos, and 2,154 by Mahomedans, total 9,805; which, at the rate of five and a half persons to each dwelling, gave a total population of 53,927 persons. The Burdwan raja has a palace (a vast heavy pile of buildings) here, where he usually resides, and also spacious gardens, laid out after the native fashion; but with a sort of summer-house fitted up after the English manner by the side of a magnificent tank.—(*W. B. Bayley, Fullarton, &c.*)

Burgundah.—A town in the Hyderabad province, ninety-seven miles N. from Ellore; lat. 18° 5′ N. lon. 81° 4′ E.

Burias.—One of the Philippine Isles, lying due south of Luzon; lat. 13° N., lon. 123° E. In extreme length it may be estimated at forty-three miles, but the average breadth does not exceed nine. Although this island is situated in the very centre of the Philippines, and so near the great island of Luzon, and its capital Manilla, yet, in 1775 it was possessed by a colony of piratical Illanois cruizers from Magindanao, the Spaniards not having been able to dislodge them. Burias is surrounded with rocks and shoals to a considerable distance.—(*Forrest, &c.*)

Burnuggur.—A town in the province of Gujerat, fifty-eight miles N. from Ahmedabad; lat. 23° 52′ N., lon. 72° 39′ E.

Burode.—A small town surrounded by a strong wall, and possessing a stone ghurry, in the province of Malwa, and pergunnah of Gungrar; lat. 23° 47′ N., lon. 75° 52′ E. In 1820 this place contained 300 houses, and belonged to Zalim Singh of Kotah.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Burpureer.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, which in 1820 contained 400 houses; five miles N. by E. from Neemutch.

Burrampoor.—A town of consi-

derable extent, population, and commerce in the Northern Circars, district of Ganjam, twenty-one miles travelling distance S.W. from the town of Ganjam. The bazar is about three quarters of a mile in length, composed of good tiled shops; and there is besides an excellent street entirely occupied by weavers, and distinguished by the red colour of their huts. The architecture of the Hindoo temples here (of which there are several) is peculiar, each temple being composed of a group of low buildings, in some instances detached, in others joined; but each with a sort of graduated pyramidical roof, terminating in an ornamented conical cupola. Juggernauth is the incarnation worshipped. When it became necessary to remove the government establishment from Ganjam, in consequence of its extreme unhealthiness they were transferred to this place, and cantonments erected on a high spot in the vicinity. —(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Burrishol.—A town in the province of Bengal, the modern capital of the Backergunge district, seventy-two miles S. from Dacca; lat. 22° 46′ N., lon. 90° 17′ E. It stands on the point of an oblong island, formed by the broad branches of the great Ganges, which here presents an immense expanse of water, and a wonderful facility of inland navigation.

Burrounda.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, thirty-seven miles S. from Banda; lat. 25° 3′ N., lon. 80° 87′ E.

Burseah.—A town in the province of Malwa, twenty-four miles N. from Bopaul; lat. 23° 40′ N., lon. 77° 31′ E. This is the cusba or head of a pergunnah of the same name, nearly thirty miles in length and twenty in breadth; and in 1820 contained 315 villages, yielding the proprietor, the Raja of Dhar, a revenue of 77,445 rupees. The Salunkee Rajpoots occupy a tract in Burseah, extending along the right bank of the Parbutty; but the villages were in ruins, and the land covered with jungle. In 1817 this place was the principal cantonment of Kurreem Khan, the Pindarry; in 1820 it was subject to the Raja of Dhar, but farmed to Bopaul, and contained 3,000 houses; but the surrounding country was thinly inhabited.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Burtapoor *(Bharatpura)*. — A town in the province of Oude, 100 miles N. by E. from Lucknow; lat. 28° 15′ N., lon. 80° 53′ E.

Burudda *(or Jaitwar)*.—A district extending along the south-western coast of the Gujerat peninsula, and situated principally between the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth degrees of north latitude. The country, which is still known by the name of Burudda, and which composes the present territory of the Rana of Poorbunder, is bounded on the north by the Serteeannee river, which falls into the Meeannee by Hallaur. On the east it has the Burudda hills, and on the west the sea. At present the chief towns are Poorbunder, Navyee, Bunder, and Meeannee, and there still exist the ruins of a town named Ghoomty, the debris of which continue to attract the devotion and excite the curiosity of the Hindoos. The surface of the country is in general flat; the soil light earth mixed with rock, and not very rich. The want of wood, so common throughout the Gujerat peninsula, is equally felt here, and the water is in many places brackish. By the conditions of Colonel Walker's arrangement in 1807, the chieftains of Poorbunder or Burudda were bound to pay the Guicowar an annual tribute of 30,000 rupees, which is quite as much as the district could afford.—(*Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Burwa.—A village in the province of Orissa, district of Cuttack, about thirty-nine miles travelling distance N. by E. from the city of Cuttack. A mile and a half to the south-west of this place there is a fine Mogul bridge of three arches, ornamented with four open square towers or pavilions, thrown across a small stream named the Narussua. On the other side of the village, distant about a

mile, is the ferry of the Kursora, a considerable river, crossed in decked boats.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Burwah.—A town and zemindary in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 240 miles W.N.W. from Calcutta. The town in the vicinity is usually named Hazary Baugh, and is the head-quarters of the Ramghur provincial corps of sepoys. In 1801 the territories of Hurry Ram Sahy were overrun and conquered by the neighbouring Raja of Sirgooja, and not being supported by his immediate superior, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor, he was obliged to submit to the invader, whose troops kept possession several years, but retreated on learning the approach of a British detachment under Colonel Jones. Conceiving this to be a favourable opportunity, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor determined to attempt its reconquest; but he stood not the least chance of success, had not the British commander and the magistrate of Ramghur advised the Burwah chief to submit on the assurance of personal safety. He was in consequence induced to trust himself in the hands of the raja's officers, who two days afterwards sent him under escort to Palcote, within a mile of which place he was taken out of his palanqueen, and put to death in cold blood by the party guarding, who had been selected for this atrocious purpose. On this occasion no judicial inquiry was instituted, nor did it come to the knowledge of the Bengal government until 1807, so imperfectly was this portion of our Eastern dominions subdued, or even explored.—(*Roughsedge, &c.*)

Burwannee.—A large town in the province of Candeish, the residence of Raja Mohun Singh; lat. 22° 4′ N., lon. 74° 58′ E. It is surrounded with a double wall, having a ditch to the outer one, and enclosing a ghurry and palace, the latter six stories high; but the place generally is in a ruinous condition. The Burwannee district extends along the south bank of the Nerbudda, and may be roughly estimated at sixty-five miles in length by forty-five in breadth, a great proportion of which is covered with jungle, and in a complete state of desolation; but of this space the Satpoorah range of hills occupy a considerable extent. The table-land of this elevated tract, interspersed with many pleasant valleys, comprehends the divisions of Borut and Nervallee, which formerly contained eighty-two flourishing towns and villages; but of these, in 1820, only the vestiges remained, and the gross revenue of this large district amounted to only 16,039 rupees.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Bussaher (*Baschar*).—A principality in northern Hindostan, occupying a tract of mountainous land, bounded on two sides by the Sutuleje and Jumna, and extending eastward until it meets the district of Roween; and north, including Kunawur, beyond the snowy mountains of Himalaya. It is named also Bishur, Besseer, Biser, and Besariya, and in 1815 contained the following subdivisions. 1st. Kunawur; 2d. the tract that includes Rampoor (the capital), and Seran, which stretches along the valley of the Sutuleje, with the smaller glens and ravines that drain into it; 3d. the valley of the Pabur, with all the territory on its left bank, including Sambracote, Nawur, Teekur, and many other smaller vallies. Dasau is also one of the great divisions of Bussaher, to which state likewise the Tartar pergunnah of Hangarang belongs.

The division that includes the glen of the Pabur river is by far the most productive in the Bussaher territories; but the upper part of that glen, and of some others that converge into it on the north, is generally barren and savage; but for a distance of fifteen or twenty miles above Raeengudh, the Pabur runs comparatively through a level valley, containing much corn land, as does also the valley of Sambracote. The Nawur and Teekur are next in fertility, and also contain iron ore, which is worked and ex-

ported to the Seik countries. The tract named Chohara, or Swara, consists of paddy or low rice-lands, already cultivated to the utmost, and some ridges of invincible sterility. Besides the districts above-named, the Bussaher Raja exercises a sort of feudal superiority over several of the adjacent petty states, who purchase protection or forbearance with an annual tribute.

The staple commodities of Bussaher, are sheep, wool, cattle, ghee, and iron, some grain, tobacco, opium, and musk. The fruits are apples, bad pears, apricots, peaches, wild grapes, currants, and the eatable seeds of the pine cone. From the grapes they procure a sort of strong liquor, much used by those who can afford to purchase it. Their woollen cloths are of an excellent fabric, their wool being of a superior quality, besides much imported from Tibet. With these materials they weave blankets of different sizes and fineness, cloth for trowsers, fine webs for waistbands and plaids, a sort of well-napped cloth named Seik cloth, and for the black bonnets which the natives wear as a covering for the head. They also manufacture a small quantity of shawl wool, occasionally mixed with that of the sheep. The trade of Bussaher, owing to its geographical position, has always been considerable, being an entrepôt between Hindostan and Tibet: from the first, sugar, cotton, cloths, small quantities of iron and brass ware, and indigo; the returns are iron, blankets, opium, a little tobacco, bang, and turmeric. The exports to Tibet and the Chinese territories, are grain to the more barren tracts, ghee, iron, opium, tobacco and wooden cups for tea; besides being the thoroughfare for all the commodities from the plains, such as sugar, sugar-candy, cotton cloths of various degrees of fineness, and indigo. The returns from the north are almost entirely wool, both shawl and the common sort, salt, a little tea, Chinese silks, musk, and borax. Prior to 1815, during the Gorkha sway, a great proportion of the traffic with Tibet and Chinese Tartary passed through the Lahore province, the best roads being then through Chamba and Jellamookhee to Amritsir, and the next through Cooloo, by its capital Stanpoor.

This principality was subdued about 1810 by the Gorkhas under Ummer Singh Thappa, and remained subject to that nation until 1814, when it was freed by the efforts of the British arms, without any active co-operation on the part of the government or its inhabitants, in consequence of which a tribute of 1,500 rupees per annum was imposed. In 1816 its total revenue was estimated at 80,000 rupees per annum. Of the population no rational estimate can be formed, but it is known to be scanty, and the climate for a considerable portion of the year in many tracts precludes cultivation.

Ooghur Singh, the late Raja of Bussaher, was only twelve days old at the death of his father and predecessor Rooder Singh. During his long minority the affairs of government were conducted by the Ranny mother, assisted by three viziers (whose functions are hereditary), the principal distinguished by the title of Mokhtar. In 1816, the reigning raja being a minor, the principality was governed by a regency established under the authority of the British government: which, however, did not interfere with the internal administration of the country.—(*James Fraser, Lieut. Ross, Sir D. Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

BUSSEAH.—A small town in the province of Bahar, district of Ramghur, 210 miles W.N.W. from Calcutta; lat. 22° 58′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E.

BUSSEE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, principality of Jeypoor, about eighteen miles S.W. from the city of Jeypoor. This town presents a striking and picturesque appearance to the traveller, owing to its white pagodas within, and old stone pavilions without.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

BUSSEE.—A town in the province of Delhi, four miles north from Sirhind; lat. 30° 37′ N., lon. 76° 25′ E.

Bustar *(or Wasatairee)*.—A town and district in the province of Gundwana, 170 miles from Ganjam; lat. 19° 31′ N., lon. 82° 28′ E. This savage tract has as yet been very imperfectly investigated, its difficult access and unhealthy climate presenting no attractions to travellers, while its poverty holds out no temptation to fiscal or military rapacity. The mountains of Bustar and Kuronde are branches of the great range that runs north and south parallel to the bay of Bengal, in the rear of Cuttack and the northern Circars. The Inderowty is the principal river of Bustar. Teak abounds in this territory, and is of sufficient size for the construction of such vessels as navigate the Coromandel coast. The river Inderowty affords facilities for floating it down from the interior to particular points, where it might be formed into rafts, and conveyed down the Godavery to Coringa. Jungly hills and pestilential morasses compose nine-tenths of the country, and the remainder is but little cultivated by the wild Gonds, who are described as living in a state of nature on the natural productions of the earth, and water, and the chase. Some of the inhabitants, however, must have attained a higher stage of civilization, as it appears that in 1812 the Nagpoor government, which claims superiority by right of conquest, attempted to levy 25,000 rupees from Maha Pal Deo, zemindar of Bustar, a portion of which they actually succeeded in extorting through the medium of Ramchunder Wag, the Nagpoor commander.

Prior to this, disputes subsisted between the Jyepoor proprietor and the Bustar chief, which led to mutual depredations. The first accused his antagonist of having seized the large estates of Ryngudda, Ameracotta, and Peddagudda; but the loss in a pecuniary view does not appear to have been a heavy one, the revenue of the whole amounting to only 150 rupees per annum, and their possession extremely undesirable. The Bustar country has in recent times been more than once held by the Poospati family, from which, from various causes, it reverted to the Nagpoor state. The tribute paid to the Maharattas was originally 10,000 rupees per annum; but afterwards increased to 15,000 rupees. In 1819 the country was described by Major Agnew as unproductive, overspread with jungle, and almost uninhabited. Until lately human sacrifices to Dewteshweeree Devee (Devata Iswari Devi) prevailed in Bustar among the wild Gond tribes; but these being performed in public, have probably, by the interference of the British functionaries, been suppressed. Culprits, prisoners of war, and sometimes innocent persons, were formerly sacrificed at the shrine of this sanguinary goddess; and it was customary with the Gond chiefs to order an offender to pay his devotions before some idol of importance, when he was put to death the moment he prostrated himself.—*(Jenkins, J. B. Blunt, F. W. Robertson, &c.)*

Bustee *(Basti, a dwelling)*.—A town in the province of Oude, district of Gorucpoor, forty miles west from the town of Gorucpoor; lat. 26° 48′ N., lon. 82° 41′ E.

Buswagon.—One of the Calamaine isles belonging to the Philippines, situated about the twelfth degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at fifty miles, by thirteen the average breadth.

Butchers Island.—A low green island in the harbour of Bombay, situated between the islands of Caranja and Salsette.

Butlul.—A native fortification in Northern Hindostan, twenty-eight miles south of Serinagur: lat. 29° 50′ N., lon. 78° 44′ E.

Butool *(Butaul)*.—A small subdivision of the Oude province, which is within the British limits, although the village of Butool, from whence the name originates, be within those of the Gorkhas. In 1802 a considerable portion of the lands belonged

to the Palpah Raja, and were tolerably well cultivated, principally by emigrants from the Oude territories; but on the cession of Goruckpoor to the British this migration ceased, and the tide turned the opposite way. In 1812 the value of Butool and Sheoraj were assumed at 40,000 rupees per annum.

The village of Butool is situated at the base of the hills on the west bank of the Tenavy, lat. 27° 37′ N., lon. 83° 31′ E., sixty-four miles north from the town of Goruckpoor. It stands on the plain, and is the only place so circumstanced that was left to the Gorkhas west of the Gunduck by the treaty of 1815. In reality it is a most undesirable possession, for it stands in the recess of a mountain, and is so destructively unhealthy, that nobody remains there during the rainy season. Besides this, during the discussions preceding the treaty, it was clearly established that the town of Butool had never belonged to the Nabob of Oude; of course the British, who only succeeded to the just rights of that prince, had no claims to its possession. The Butool Raja formerly possessed extensive dominions among the hills, where he was known as the Raja of Palpa; but of these and his dignity he was stripped by the Gorkhas of Nepaul, when the wheel rose and rendered them predominant.—(*Ahmuty, Routledge, &c.*)

Butur.—A Batta district in the island of Sumatra, situated inland from the bay of Tapanooly. It consists of the space between Silindung and Toba, an elevated tract of country apparently thirty miles long by twenty broad, bounded on the north-east by Toba, on the north-west by a range of lofty mountains running east and west, on the south-west by Silindang, and on the south-east by a broken hilly tract, extending southward to the hill of Angkola. The whole plain is free from wood, and in 1822 presented a wide field of verdure, with detached straw huts and patches of mountain rice.—(*Burton and Ward, &c.*)

Buxar (*Bagsar*).—A town and fortress in the province of Bahar, district of Shahabad, situated on the east side of the Ganges, fifty-eight miles E.N.E. from Benares. The fort is constructed on a small mound of conker soil, which here projects into the river, and no where from hence to the sea does the Ganges flow through so confined a channel. The works are kept in good repair, and garrisoned by Sepoy invalids.

A celebrated victory was gained here in October 1764 by the British forces under Major (afterwards Sir Hector) Munro, over the united armies of Shuja ud Dowlah and Cossim Khan. The first consisted of 856 Europeans and 6,215 sepoys, of whom eighty-seven Europeans and 712 sepoys were killed and wounded. The combined army was computed at 40,000 men, 2,000 of whom are supposed to have been slain in the battle. The flight of the allies was so tumultuous that they did not stop at Buxar, but hastened to a nullah beyond it, which being full, many were drowned and slaughtered in attempting to pass. The plunder was great, as they left their tents standing; and their whole train of artillery, consisting of 133 pieces, of various sizes was taken. A native historian (Gholaum Hossein) describes the camp of the two chiefs while advancing in the following terms: "a bridge of boats being thrown over the Ganges, the allied armies began their march, in numbers not to be reckoned; but, from the ignorance of their commanders and want of discipline, murdering and plundering each other. It was not an army, but rather a moving nation." Travelling distance from Benares seventy miles, from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 485 miles, by Birboom 408 miles.—(*Gholaum Hossein, Fullarton, Rennell, &c.*)

Buxedwar (*Bakshedwara*).—A remarkable pass leading from the belt of low land that separates Cooch Bahar from Bootan; lat. 26° 52′ N., lon. 89° 38′ E., eighty miles north by east from the town of Rungpoor in Bengal. Buxedwar is a spot of great

natural strength, and being a frontier station in this quarter, has also been rendered strong by art. In 1783 the village consisted of ten or twelve houses, invisible until the moment of entrance. It stands on a second table of levelled rock, upon which there is very little soil; yet it is covered with verdure in consequence of its sheltered position, surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains, and open only to the south, where the prospect looks down on Bengal. The country, coming from the south, continues flat to the foot of the Buxedwar hill. The ascent to Santarabary is easy, but the road afterwards becomes abrupt and precipitous; yet the hills are covered with trees to their summits. At Santarabary are extensive orange groves, and raspberry bushes are found in the jungles. —(*Capt. Turner, &c.*)

Buxwah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, twenty miles north-west from Huttah; lat. 24° 15′ N., lon. 79° 16′ E.

Buxygunge (*Baksheganj*).— A town in the province of Bengal, district of Dinagepoor, eighty-four miles N.N.E. from Moorshedabad.

Bydell.—A town and small pergunnah in the province of Bengal, ninety-five miles north from Moorshedabad; lat. 25° 32′ N., lon. 88° 10′ E.

Bygonbarry (*Vaicantha Bari*).— A town in the province of Bengal, district of Mymunsingh, situated on the west side of the Brahmaputra, seventy-five miles north by east from Dacca; lat. 24° 46′ N., lon, 90° E. This place was the head-quarters of the district for some time after its formation, but at present the actual residence of the judge and magistrate is at Nusserabad, eight miles further south. In 1821 it contained one indigo factory.

Byoram.—A town in the Hyderabad province, forty-nine miles north from Cummumait; lat. 17° 57′ N., lon. 80° 24′ E.

Byraghur (*Vairaghar*).—A town in the province of Gundwana, seventy-five miles S.W. from Sumbhulpoor; lat. 20° 18′ N., lon. 82° 55′ E. This place formerly belonged to Chanda, and the country still bears that name, although they subsequently became separate governments. In 1794 it contained 300 thatched and tiled houses, and was considered by the Maharattas, to whom it then belonged, as a strong place. It had then a stone fort on the north-west side, under the east face of which runs the Kobragur, a stream that afterwards joins the Wainy or Raumgunga. At the above date Byraghur was a place of some traffic, principally in cotton from the interior, which was carried to the sea-coast of the northern circars, and exchanged for salt, betel, and cocoa-nuts.—(*J. B. Blunt, &c.*)

Byraghur.—A large village in the province of Ajmeer, district of Harrowty, which in 1820 contained 1,200 inhabitants; five miles west from Dillanpoor.

Byramghaut.—A town in the province of Oude, situated on the west side of the Goggra, thirty-six miles N.E. from Lucknow; lat. 27° 6′ N., lon. 81° 21′ E.

Byrath.—A pass in northern Hindostan, thirty-seven miles east by north from Nahan, and 7,599 feet above the level of the sea; lat. 30° 35′ N., lon. 77° 55′ E.

Byreia.—A town in the province of Malwa, sixteen miles from Oojein. In 1820 it had a good bazar, and contained about 1,000 houses.—(*Malcolm, &c.*)

Byturnee (*Vaiturani*) River.— A river of Cuttack, which ranks second after the Mahanuddy. It rises in the mountainous region of Chuta Nagpoor, in the province of Bahar, and after a course of between 300 and 400 miles, and receiving various contributary streams, joins the Bay of Bengal a little to the north of Point Palmyras.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

C

Cabo.—A rocky promontory at the western extremity of the island of Goa, opposite to the fort of Alguarda, and the site of the ancient Portuguese church and monastery of Nostra Senhora del Cabo. This spot commands a magnificent view of the harbour of Goa on the one side, and on the other the bay of Marmagra, studded with islets and white monastic buildings. There are also several large convents between this point and Panjim, or new Goa, while the intermediate country presents one continued grove of cocoa-nut trees.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

CABUL.

The kingdom of Cabul, while flourishing, comprehended the greater part of Afghanistan; but at present it is difficult to establish its limits, or even its existence. Assuming its extent as described by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, we find it bounded on the east by Hindostan (where it possessed Cashmere, and some tracts on the left bank of the Indus); on the south it may be roughly considered (including tributary countries) as bounded by the sea; on the west a desert extends along the whole frontier; its northern limit is marked by the mountains of the Eastern Caucasus. According to the nomenclature of the latest maps, it includes Afghanistan and Segistan, with part of Khorasan and Mekran; Bulk, with Tokaristan and Kilan, Caffristan, Cabul, Candahar, Sinde, and Cashmere, together with a portion of Lahore, and the greater part of Mooltan. The total population of these extensive regions, in 1809, was estimated by Mr. Elphinstone at fourteen millions, in the following proportions, *viz.*

Afghans	4,300,000
Balooches	1,000,000
Tartars of all descriptions	1,200,000
Persians and Tajiks	1,500,000
Hindostanies (Cashmerians, Juts, &c.)	5,700,000
Miscellaneous tribes	300,000
Total	14,000,000

With respect to its geography, the modern province of Cabul (occasionally named Zabulistan) is divided into two parts, separated by a ridge of very high mountains, usually covered with snow, which runs from east to west from the neighbourhood of Ghizni to that of Deenkote. Distant as the time is, however, so little has it been explored, that the best description of this romantic country, the cradle of so many of the conquerors of Hindostan, is that given by the Emperor Baber, in his personal memoirs, where he treats of his adventures from A.D. 1500 to 1510. The northern tract is named Lughmanat, the southern Bungishat, each having one or more considerable streams intersecting their whole length. The valley of the Cabul river separates the southern projection of the Hindoo Cosh, from the Soliman mountains on the south; the interval having the appearance of a breach in a continued chain once formed by these ridges. The breach between them is in some places twenty-five miles wide. This valley towards the east is occupied by hills that stretch from mountain to mountain, but with inferior elevation. West of these hills is Jellalabad, and still further west the surface rises so much, that although Gundamak be in a valley with respect to the southern projection, or to the lofty eminences of Soliman, it is on a mountain when compared to Jellalabad. The Cabul river flows through the centre of this space, and into its basin all the vallies in this quarter of Hindoo Cosh open.

The aspect of Cabul is highly diversified, being an aggregate of snowy mountains, moderate sized hills, and extensive plains and forests; but from the city of Cabul to the Indus there is an invariable deficiency of wood. The principal towns are Cabul, Peshawer (the modern capital), and Ghizni. The central districts about the first, possessing few Indian commodities, receive sugar and cotton cloths, mostly from Peshawer, whither they send leather, iron, and tobacco. To Candahar are exported iron, leather,

and lamp oil, whence the returns are made in sundry manufactures of Persia and Europe. The Tartars of Bokhara bring to Cabul the horses of Turkistan, furs, and hides; the latter resembling those in Europe termed Bulgar; the proceeds are invested in indigo and other productions of Hindostan.

In A.D. 997, when Cabul was invaded by Sebuctaghi, the first sovereign of the Ghizni dynasty, the eastern section of the province, although west of the Indus, was still occupied by Hindoos, subject to a prince of that religion named Jypal, whose capital was named Batinda, and whose dominions extended in a north-west direction to Lughmanat, and in a south-east line from Cashmere to Mooltan. The whole was finally subdued by Sultan Mahmood about A.D. 1008, and its subsequent history will be found under the articles Ghizni and Afghanistan. In modern times, Cabul attracted attention in 1809, when the French projected the invasion of Hindostan through the Afghan dominions, to counteract which, Mr. Elphinstone was sent to Peshawer by the Bengal government, and concluded arrangements which completely neutralized the projected expedition. In 1826 Cabul was partitioned amongst the sons of the late Vizier Futteh Khan, who were always at variance.—(*Elphinstone, Forster, Rennell, &c.*)

CABUL.—A city of Afghanistan, the capital of the Cabul province; lat. 34° 10′ N., lon. 69° 15′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Cabul is a very ancient and beautiful city, of which Pusheng is said to be the founder. There are double walls of considerable strength, on the south-east side of a small hill named Shah Cabul. From early antiquity Cabul and Candahar have been reckoned the gates of Hindostan; one affording entrance from Tooraun, the other from Iran."

The modern city of Cabul is the capital, and usually the residence of the Durrany sovereigns of Afghanistan. It stands in a plain abundantly watered, and interspersed with walled villages. It is divided by the Cabul river, and in its vicinity has many groves and gardens, especially on the north and west. The most pleasing spot is the tomb of the Emperor Baber, which stands on the top of a hill over the city, commanding a noble view. The town is compact and handsome, but not of great magnitude. It is enclosed on three sides by a semicircle of low hills, protected on the top by a wall of little strength. On the east there is an opening, fortified by a rampart, and here the principal road enters by a gate, after passing over the river on a bridge. The Balla Hissar, which stands on that portion of the hill north of the entrance, is a kind of citadel, containing the king's palace, and there is also an upper citadel used as a state prison.

Ali Merdan Khan, a celebrated Mogul sovereign of Jehangir's reign, erected in the centre four spacious bazars, two stories high, arched over, and supplied with fountains, now choked up with filth. Owing to the frequency of earthquakes, most of the other buildings are of wood. The bazars are well supplied; and the town, while the seat of government, was an emporium of considerable trade, frequently crowded with Usbeck Tartars, resembling in feature the Chinese and Malays, but with a harsher expression. Here is also to be found a colony of Armenians, captured by Nadir Shah during his Turkish campaigns. Many Hindoos frequent Cabul, mostly from Peshawer; and as by their industry they contribute greatly to its prosperity, they are carefully cherished by the Afghan government.

This city being lower than Ghizni, and more enclosed by hills, does not suffer so much from extreme cold, the winter not being severe, while it is steadier than the winter of England; but, on the other hand, the heat of summer is much more intense. The climate and scenery of Cabul have been celebrated by many poets

of Persia and Hindostan, who extol the beauty and abundance of its flowers and fruits, the latter of which, when dried, are transported to the remotest parts of India. Travelling distance from Delhi, 839 miles; from Agra, 976; from Lucknow, 1,118; and from Calcutta, 1,815 miles.—(*Elphinstone, Foster, Rennell, &c.*)

CABYNA.—A small island about twenty-one miles in length by fifteen in breadth, lying due south of the eastern limb of Celebes; lat. 5° 18′ S, lon. 121° 53′ E.

CACHAR *(or Hairumbo).*—The province of Cachar, or more properly Hairumbo, lies within lat. 24° to 27° N., and from 92° to 94° E., comprehending an area of about 140 miles from north to south, and about 100 from east to west; on the north it is bounded by the Brahmaputra river and kingdom of Assam; on the west by the territory of Gentiah; on the south by Silhet and Tipera; while eastward it extends to the small principality of Munipoor. The ancient and peculiar distinctive name of this territory is Hairumbo, although the inhabitants are described as Cacharies. The province comprehends two divisions, that of Cachar Proper, which borders on Bengal; and that of Dharmapoor, which lies north of the main ridge of mountains, which are difficult to pass. The ancient capital of Hairumbo was Grobarge, situated about lat. 25° 45′ N., and twenty miles north from Cospoor, the modern capital. It is separated from Silhet by the Dullasery nullah and the Soorma or Barak river.

The principal rivers of Hairumbo are the Capili and the Barak, both of which spring in the eastern mountains, and ultimately join the Megna, carrying with them the waters of nearly all the smaller streams. The tract of country lying under the mountains abounds with bogs and marshes, and during the rainy season presents several large sheets of water. The mountains are covered with forest trees, long grass jungles and occasionally bamboos. The northern mountains are a branch of these, called the Garrow mountains; those in the south and south-east are a continuation of the Tipera hills, which after stretching northward as far as Cospoor, turn abruptly to the west until they meet the Brahmaputra. The height of these hills is from 600 to 1,000 feet; but the faces of some of them towards the west being precipitous, many small waterfalls are seen. Through these mountains there are said to be three passes, practicable at all seasons of the year: two leading to Dharmapoor, and the third to Cospoor. So savage and inaccessible a country requires few artificial fortifications, yet there are said to be some redoubts and stockades. About forty miles to the south-east of Cospoor are the Bhavani mountains, through which there is a pass leading to Munipoor and the kingdom of Ava.

This country being much overrun with jungle, there is a great want of practicable roads. This, however, as far as commerce is concerned, is compensated by the internal navigation the Barak affords, along which the British troops and stores always moved in boats. The breadth of this river varies in different parts of its course; at Tilyn it is 150 yards broad, but where the road from Attingah to Acquee crosses it, only seventy yards. In the dry season it is fordable in many places, but soon after the commencement of the rains it rises rapidly, and has then thirty to forty feet depth of water. At Ilchar, near Doodputlee, a number of broken rocks reach across the channel, and during the dry season cause rapids; but in the rains they are covered with twenty feet of water. The Barak begins to rise so early as February; but meeting no check from the Megna, runs off immediately, so that there is no permanent inundation until the beginning of June, after which the country remains almost impracticable for an army until November; indeed, from the middle of that month until the end of February is the only fit season for military operations.

The population of Hairumbo is scanty in proportion to its area; one estimate, probably much exaggerated, states it at 80,000 families. The most populous tract is in the level country adjacent to Dharmapoor, and in the parts most contiguous to Bengal. The revenues of Hairumbo were formerly estimated at one lack of rupees per annum, but in 1817 had dwindled down to 30,000 rupees. Among other sources of revenue to the Cachar Raja are the produce of certain salt-pits, which not only furnish a quantity equal to the wants of the principality, but also a surplus for exportation. The other exports consist of commodities the indigenous products of the country, such as the coarse silk named Moong and Tusser, wax, cotton, timber, limestone, and iron ore, which last they have not yet learned the art to fuse and convert into a metallic state.

The inhabitants of both sexes are strong and robust, with countenances more of a Chinese than Bengalese aspect, and in complexion fairer than the latter; they have no peculiar written character, having borrowed that of Bengal, as well as its language. The original Hairumbian dialect is said to have been monosyllabic, but it may be said to be now extinct; such of the inhabitants as can read apply themselves principally to the legendary and mythological poems of Bengal. The Cacharies are a numerous tribe, who are scattered over this quarter of Asia, although the name is usually limited to the petty state of Cachar, which although fertile, is thinly inhabited, and much overgrown with jungle. Before the reign of Hari Chandra, about A.D. 1780, the distinction of caste was unknown; but during his reign the brahminical system of religion was introduced, and of course the sacerdotal superiority. Durga, the wife of Siva, is the principal object of adoration, under various characters, but more especially under that of Cali, a destructive female energy, whom they are said occasionally to propitiate with human sacrifices; the guardian deity, however, of Hairumbo is said to be Ramchandra.

Cachar was first invaded by the Burmese in 1774, during the reign of Shembuan; but their troops being seized with the jungle fever, a disease fatally known to the British army, the detachment was dispersed, cut off in detail, or perished by disease. A second expedition from Ava was more successful, the Raja being so intimidated that besides the payment of a sum of money, he engaged to send a maiden and also a tree with the roots bound in the native clay, as an unequivocal mark of subjugation. It is probable that the Burmese soon after evacuated this unprofitable country, as we do not hear of them until 1810, when they again interfered with the affairs of Cachar, having previously placed Marjeet on the throne as a tributary. In 1810 they summoned him to Ava: but declining compliance, Munipoor was captured by the Burmese, and Marjeet retiring into Cachar with 5,000 followers, expelled Govind Chandra (who had in his service Gumbheer Singh, the brother of Marjeet, who betrayed him), who fled into the British territories. Choorjeet (the brother of Marjeet and Gumbheer Singh) afterwards expelled all the others and governed Cachar for five years. In 1823, finding himself quite unable to control his own subjects or resist the Burmese, he offered to place Cachar under the British protection, which was conceded; but before the treaty could be concluded, he (Marjeet) was expelled by Gumbheer Singh, and retired to Silhet. The negociation was renewed with Gumbheer Sing; but after much evasion he withheld his consent, even when a Burmese invasion was impending, confiding in the natural difficulties of his country, and believing that he would always be sure of the aid of the British government. It was then determined to restore the legitimate raja, Govind Chandra, the descendant of Raja Krishna Chandra, who had governed Cachar for forty years, and assign pensions to the Munipoor brothers,

Marjeet and Gumbheer Singh, the last of whom, on the advance of the Burmese, in January 1824, fled into Silhet. A British detachment now penetrated the Cachar province, and after several sharp actions, expelled the Burmese, who subsequently at the treaty of Yandaboo, relinquished all pretensions to the province, or any right of interference; its Raja then became wholly dependent on British protection, for which he agreed to pay a tribute of 10,000 rupees per annum.—(*Friend to India, Public Journals, Symes, &c.*)

CACHAR.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, province of Tunquin, of which it is said to be the modern capital. It stands on the river Tunquin, about 120 miles from its mouth.

CAFFRISTAN.—An elevated region to the north of the Cabul dominions, which occupies a great part of the Hindoo Cosh mountains, and a portion of those of Beloot Taugh. On the north-east it is bounded by Cashgar; on the north by Badukshan; and on the north-west by Koondooz, in Bulk. On the west it has Inderaub and Khost, also in Bulk, and the Cohistan of Cabul; on the east it extends for a great distance towards the north of Cashmere, where its boundary is not distinctly ascertained. There is a curve which is observed from the south of Hindoo Cosh, which rises over Bijore. This projection, with the nearest portion of Hindoo Cosh and some of the neighbouring branches, is inhabited by the Siaposh, or black-wearing Caffres. The ascent to their country leads along frightful precipices, and through deep and narrow chasms, where the traveller is endangered by the rocky fragments that roll down from above, either loosened by the wind and rain, or by the goats and other wild animals that browze on the overhanging cliffs. These Caffres inhabit narrow, but rich and pleasant spots, producing abundance of grapes, and for the most part surmounted by snowy peaks. The Caffre country extends beyond the western angle formed by the curve, and the ridge that proceeds to the west, until it disappears among the Paropamisan mountains.

The whole alpine region of Caffristan consists of snowy mountains, deep pine forests, with small but fertile valleys, which produce large quantities of grapes, both wild and cultivated, and furnish pasture for sheep and cattle, while the hills subsist numerous flocks of goats. Grain, as an article of food, is inferior both in quantity and importance, the commonest kinds being wheat and millet. The roads are only fit for foot travellers, and are often interrupted by rivers and torrents, which are crossed either on stationary wooden bridges, or by bridges swinging on ropes made of the pliant withes of some tree. The villages are built on the slopes of hills, so that the roof of one house forms the path leading to the one above it. The valleys are said to be well-peopled: that of the Camojee tribe, containing ten villages, had one named Camdesh consisting of 500 houses.

This people are named Caffres or infidels by their Mahomedan neighbours, and their country Caffristan; but among themselves have no general name for their own nation, being divided into many tribes, each having its peculiar designation. The Mahomedans call one division black infidels, and another white infidels; but both epithets are taken from their dress, the Caffres being noted for their fairness, and the beauty of their complexion. Those of the largest division wear a sort of vest of black goat skins, while the lesser dress in white cotton. There are several dialects among the Caffres, which have many words in common, all having a near connexion with the Sanscrit, which derivation renders their conjectured Greek origin extremely improbable, neither do their traditions furnish any satisfactory account of their origin. The most credible is, that they were expelled by the Mahomedans from the neighbourhood of Candahar, at which era they are said to have consisted of

four tribes, named Camoze, Hilar, Silar, and Comoje. The three first are reported to have become converts to the Mahomedan religion; while the last, adhering to its ancient rites, migrated from their native country. One peculiarity among the Caffre arrangement of numbers is, that they count by scores instead of hundreds, and that their thousand (which they call by the Persian and Afghan name) consists of 400, or twenty score.

By their neighbours, the Afghans, the Caffres are said to believe in one God, named by the villagers of Camdesh, Imra, and by those of Tsokooe, Dagun; but they also worship many idols, which they say represent great men of former days, who intercede with the Deity in favour of their votaries; in this respect coinciding with the Jains and Buddhists. The idols are of stone or wood, and always represent men or women, mounted or on foot; the Caffre pantheon, however, is not of difficult access. In Camdesh, one of the largest villages, a principal inhabitant, renowned for his hospitality and good cheer, during his life-time erected a statue to himself, which on his decease was as much worshipped as any of the more ancient gods by his tribe venerated. This facility of deification must augment the aggregate number of gods, but many must be confined to particular localities and tribes: accordingly the gods of Camdesh appear quite different from those of Tsokooe, although there is one common to both. The chief gods or deified heroes of Camdesh are, 1st. Bugheesh (probably Bhagesa or Bacchus); 2d. Mani, who expelled Yoosh, or the evil principle, from the world; 3d. Urrum; 4th. Pursoo; 5th. Geesh; 6th. seven brothers, having the appellation of Paradik, who were created from a golden tree, and had golden bodies; 7th. seven golden brothers of the same description; 8th. Koomyee, by Mahomedans called the wife of Adam; 9th. Dessaunee, the wife of Geesh; 10th. Dohee; 11th. Surijoo (probably the sun); 12th. Nishtee.

On the other hand the gods of Tsokooe are Maunde (perhaps Mani before-mentioned), Marraist, Murrasooree, and Inderjee (probably the Hindoo deity Indra); and, like these names, many of their rites have a Hindoo character; but their eating beef and sprinkling with blood, even that of cows, cannot be reconciled with the Brahminical religion, although fire be a requisite at every ceremony, and some of their idols have a resemblance to the lingam or emblem of Siva. The Caffres have a hereditary priesthood, but their influence is not great. They detest fish, which, from the inland and mountainous nature of their country, they can but seldom have an opportunity of seeing; but they hold no other animal impure, eating indiscriminately beef, mutton, and the flesh of bears. Their festivals are often accompanied with a sacrifice, and always with a feast, but many of their other ceremonies have no connexion with religion. A wife is procured by purchase from the father, which sometimes amounts to twenty cows. The females are not concealed. Adultery is not much reprobated, although there is a punishment enacted for it. Besides their wives, the rich inhabitants of Caffristan have male and female slaves, who are also Caffres, for in their wars with the Mahomedans they take no prisoners. Some of these slaves are captured in battle from hostile tribes; others from tribes with which they are at peace; but the greater proportion belong to their own tribe, it being quite common for powerful men to seize on children, and either sell them to the Mahomedans, or retain them for their own service. A person who loses his relations is soon made a slave. The Afghans purchase Caffres for slaves, and some are made prisoners by the Yusephzei tribe on the borders of Caffristan; but the trade between the two countries is in other respects trifling. The captives are generally females, who are much sought after on account of the remarkable beauty of their nation.

The civil and political government of the Caffres is almost wholly unknown. It is uncertain whether or not there are any magistrates; the probability is that there are none, and that the public business is carried on by the chief men of each tribe, where the law of retaliation is firmly established. They have no honorary titles, but have borrowed that of khan from the Afghans. Their property consists mostly of cattle and slaves. In 1810, at the village of Camdesh, one rich man possessed 800 goats, 300 oxen, and eight families of slaves. Among the black-wearing Caffres, the dress of the lower classes consists of four goat skins, two forming a vest, and the other two a sort of petticoat, with the hair outside. Until they have slain a Mahomedan they go bareheaded, shave their heads except a long tuft on the crown, and wear beards four or five inches long. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, except that their hair is plaited on the top of their heads, with a small cap over it, round which is a turban. They have also silver ornaments, and many cowry shells. Both sexes have earrings, rings round their necks, and bracelets, sometimes of silver, but more frequently of pewter or brass. The Caffre funerals differ in many respects from those of other nations. When an individual dies he is dressed in his best clothes, extended on a bed, and his weapons placed beside him. After being carried about for some time by his relations, the male dancing and singing, and the female lamenting, he is shut up in a coffin and deposited in the open air under the shade of trees, or some other appropriate situation.

The Caffre dwelling-houses are generally of wood, and they have others where they keep their cheeses, clarified butter, wine, and vinegar. In every house there is a wooden bench fixed to the wall with a low back to it, and there are stools shaped like drums, but smaller in the middle than at the ends. Partly owing to their dress and partly to custom, the Caffres cannot sit like other Asiatics, so that when forced to sit on the ground they are compelled to stretch out their legs like Europeans. The stools are made of wicker-work, and they have also beds constructed of wood and thongs of neat's leather. Their food is usually cheese, butter, and milk, with bread, or a sort of suet pudding; but they also eat flesh, which they prefer half raw. Their fruits are walnuts, grapes, apples, almonds, and a sort of wild apricot. Both sexes are said to drink wine to great excess; of this they have three kinds, red, white, and dark-coloured, besides a sort of a jelly consistence, and very strong. They drink during meals, and when elevated become quarrelsome. They are all exceedingly hospitable, hunt but little, their favourite amusement being dancing, which is prosecuted with great vehemence by all ages and sexes. Their instruments are a pipe and tabor, their music quick, wild, and varied.

One of the most distinguishing characteristics of the nation, is their unceasing war with the neighbouring Mahomedans. The latter frequently invade their territories in small parties, and carry off slaves; but about 1780 a species of general crusade against them was undertaken. The Khan of Badukshan, one of the princes of Cashgar, the Padshah (king) of Cooner, the Bauz of Bijore, and several Yusephzei Khans, having confederated, formed a junction in the heart of the Caffre country; but they were unable to retain possession, and compelled to evacuate with considerable loss. The Caffre weapons are a bow about four and a half feet long with a leathern string, and light arrows of reed with barbed heads, which they sometimes poison. They wear a dagger on the right side and a sharp knife on the left, along with which they carry a flint, and tinder made of bark. They have also begun to learn the use of swords and fire-arms from their Afghan neighbours. Sometimes they attack their enemy openly, but their usual mode

is by ambush and surprise. On many occasions they give no quarter, but their chief glory is the destruction of a Mahomedan, as until a young Caffre has performed this exploit he is precluded from various privileges. Their customs in this respect and some others greatly resemble those of the Garrow mountaineers on the north-eastern frontier of Bengal. In solemn dances, in the festivals of Numinaut, each man wears a turban, into which a long feather is stuck for every Mahomedan he has slain; the number of bells which he is authorized to wear round his waist is also regulated in the same ratio. A Caffre who has not killed his man, is not permitted during the dance to flourish his axe above his head. Such as have the good luck to kill a Mahomedan are visited and congratulated by their neighbours, and have afterwards a right to wear a little red woollen cap, or cockade, tied to his head; those who have slain many may erect a high pole before their doors, in which are holes to receive a pin for every Mahomedan the owner has destroyed, and a ring for each he has wounded. It is said, however, that notwithstanding the inveteracy of their hatred, they sometimes conclude a truce or peace with the Mahomedans, accompanied by strange ceremonies.

Such are the principal details that have reached us of the manners and customs of these Asiatic Caffres; but as the information comes to us through the medium of the neighbouring Mahomedans, at once the objects and narrators of the alleged barbarities, it must be received with considerable allowance for exaggeration, more especially as the same authorities inform us that the Caffres are in general a harmless, affectionate, warm-hearted people, who, although quick and passionate, are easily appeased, and naturally gay and sociable, and kind even to Mahomedans, whom they admit as guests to share their hospitality. By old Mahomedan writers this tract is frequently termed Kuttore, and the expedition of Timour to the mountains of Kuttore is particularly related by Sheriffedin. From his narrative, it appears that Timour first proceeded from Badukshan to Kawuk or Khawick, the furthest or most eastern of the passes leading through the Hindoo Cosh mountains into the province of Cabul. In order to arrive at the fortress of Kuttore he crossed several ranges of high mountains, rising one above the other, some of them covered with snow. The fortress was situated at the foot of the further range, having a river of great depth and rapidity close under its walls.—(*Elphinstone, &c.*)

Caggar River.—The Camphylis, now Cambali, is a considerable stream four miles west of Ambala, in the Delhi province towards Sirhind, and it falls into the Dreshadvati now the Caggar, which is the common division of the east and north-west divisions of Hindostan, according to a passage in the commentaries on the Vedas.—(*Wilford, &c.*)

Cahlore (*Cahalar*). — A small principality (named by Abul Fazel Ghahlore) in northern Hindostan, situated on both banks of the Sutuleje, the capital of which, Belaspoor, stands in lat. 31° 14′ N., lon. 76° 43′ E., seventy miles N.E. from Ludeeana. Its chief is also frequently named the Belaspoor Raja.

In 1803 the possessions of Cahlore were reduced to the capital and pergunnah of Tuhawat, the rest having been seized by the Hindoor Raja. Subsequently, by the assistance of the Gorkhas, Raja Mahachund of Cahlore recovered all the twelve lordships, and restored the principality to nearly its former magnitude; but in 1807 Runjeet Singh of Lahore again stripped him of a large portion of his territory. During the Nepaulese war, the country of Belaspoor was left entirely at the mercy of the British army, when General Ochterlony offered terms to the Cahlore Raja, who had adhered to the Gorkhas with exemplary fidelity: which he joyfully accepted, and having ever since per-

formed his new duties with punctuality, has been exempted from tribute. In 1816, Cahlore possessed on the east of the Sutuleje (the only tract guaranteed by the British government) the forts of Ruttunghur, Bahadurghur, Futtehpoor, Taem, and Mookur. The revenues beyond the Sutuleje were estimated at 32,000 rupees, east of it 28,000, making a total of 60,000 rupees. The inhabitants of this little principality are of a more martial disposition than those of Hindoor and Baghul. Every Cahlorian zemindar possesses a sword, and almost every village contains some fire-arms.—(*Lieut. Ross, Public MS. Documents, &c.*)

Cailas Mountains.—This ridge of high mountains is situated about the 31st degree of north latitude, slanting to the north-west and south-east, and almost parallel to the Himalaya, but its eastern and western limits are unknown. West from lake Manasarovara for about two hundred miles, the separation is very distinctly marked by the course of the Sutuleje, the intervening space, from thirty to forty miles in breadth, being the valley through which that river flows to the north-west, until it winds to the south, and penetrates the Himalaya at lat. 32° north. It has been thought by some that the northern ridge is distinguished by the name of Cailas, while the southern retains that of Himalaya, but the mountaineers make no such distinction. They, as well as the dwellers on the plains, appear to call every high place crowned with snow, Cailas, and apply it equally to the southern and to the northern ridge.

It is probable that the Cailas range is little, if at all, loftier than the Himalaya; but behind the surface evidently declines, as the waters there have a northerly course through Tartary towards the icy sea of Asia. A lofty peak on the north-west, covered with never-melting snow, is supposed to be the favourite throne of Siva, who must find it rather a cool seat at any season of the year. Some mountain torrents rise in the Cailas range, and disembogue into the Rawan Hrad lake. The principal of these are the Siva Gunga, the Gauri Ganga, the Dharchan Gadra, and the Catyayani.

The portion of Tibet between the Cailas and Himalaya mountains appears to be a sort of oblong table-land, yet studded with irregular hills and ridges, some covered with everlasting snow, others only partially concealed, but the whole bare of verdure, rocky and barren. The intervening vallies are of a better description, and afford, during the height of summer and beginning of autumn, pasturage to the flocks of the inhabitants, who, with the exception of a few gylums (monks) and their associates, seem to be migratory, as on the approach of winter they seek refuge with their cattle in a milder climate. During the whole summer the heat is such as to admit of their raising a small quantity of grain, but not sufficient even for the few inhabitants of this desolate region; which on the other hand is rich in gold, and probably other metals, and steams with springs, hot, saline, calcareous, and sulphurous. This tract also includes the two holy lakes of Manasarovara, and Rawan's Hrad, and with the Hindoos the whole is sacred ground, on account of its sterile soil, horrible climate, and difficult access.

Caithal.—A town in the province of Delhi, which in 1817 was the principal town and residence of the Seik chief Bylal Singh; lat. 29° 49′ N. It is mentioned as one of the marches of Timour on his route from Samana to Delhi.—(*Captain Hodgson, &c.*)

Cajori River.—A large branch of the Mahanuddy river, which separates at Cuttack, and terminates principally in the Alankar, which is deep and narrow, and pursues a singularly winding course, until it is lost amidst a variety of lesser ramifications. About half way between Cuttack and the sea the Cajori sends off a large

branch, which after dividing, doubling on itself, and again branching out into a labyrinth of fantastical intricacies, enters the sea at last in a broad channel, about forty miles north of the black pagoda, under the appellation of the Debnuddy. Another large stream leaves the Mahanuddy opposite to Cuttack, and afterwards separates into three principal streams, the Bhargabi, Daya, and Kusbadra, which flow south, inclining a little to the east. The last enters the sea between the black pagoda and Juggernauth. The two first uniting again into one channel, discharge their waters into the Chilka lake, called by different names at different stages of their course, and finally the Harchundi. During the heavy rains of 1817, the waters of the Cajori rose eighteen feet in one night, overtopping the general level of the town and station at least six feet.—(*Stirling, &c.*)

Calamaines Isles.—A number of small islands in the eastern seas belonging to the Philippines, situated half way between Mindoro and the island of Palawan, about the twelfth degree of north latitude. The two largest are named Busvagon and Calamaine, the last being about twenty-three miles long by five in breadth. The coast around these islands is strewed with numberless shoals, rocks, and fragments of islets, that render the navigation dangerous.

Calanore.—A town in the province of Lahore, where the emperor Acber, on the death of his father Humayoon, in 1556, was first proclaimed. Lat. 32° 1′ N., lon. 74° 53′ E., thirty miles north from Amritsir.

Calantan.—A petty state on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, extending from the river Basut to that of Banara, where it borders on Patna. It comprehends fifty mukkims or parishes, with a population of 50,000 inhabitants besides Chinese. It exports gold, tin, and pepper; the second to the amount of 3,000 piculs, and the last to 12,000 piculs annually. Besides those Chinese who are otherwise occupied, it is said that within the three states of Pahang, Tringanu, and Calantan, 15,000 are engaged in working the gold mines, from which they extract to the value of 420,000 dollars yearly. A great portion of this goes to Singapoor, and another across the mountains to Penang and Malacca.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, &c.*)

Calamundeeghur.—A fortress occupying the summit of a high mountain in the province of Bejapoor, about twenty-three miles travelling distance west of Belgaum. It was acquired from the Peshwa, and in 1820 was garrisoned by a small party of British sepoys. At the base of the mountain stands the hamlet of Patna.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Calayan.—A small island in the eastern seas, one of the Philippines, twenty-three miles in circumference, situated due north of the large island of Luzon or Luçonia.

Calberga *(Calbarga)*.—A town in the province of Beeder, the capital of a district, situated 107 miles west from the city of Hyderabad; lat. 17° 19′ N., lon. 76° 56′ E. This is now a place of little note, but was famous in ancient times, having been the capital both of a Hindoo and Mahomedan sovereignty. Rajas of Calberga are mentioned as independent princes when the Deccan was invaded by Allah ud Deen, in A.D. 1295; and when the founder of the Bhamenee dynasty erected the standard of rebellion in 1347, this was his capital.—(*Ferishta, Scott, &c.*)

CALCUTTA.

(Calicata.)

This city is situated about 100 miles from the sea, on the east side of the western branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hooghly, or Calcutta river, but by the natives the Bhagirathi and true Ganges, and considered by them peculiarly holy. Fort William, its citadal, stands in lat. 22° 23′ N., lon. 88° 28′ E.

The locality of this capital is not fortunate, for it has extensive muddy lakes, and an immense forest close to it, and was at first deemed scarcely less unhealthy than Batavia, which it resembled in being placed in a flat and marshy country. The English, it has been remarked, are more inattentive to the local advantages of situation than the French, who have always, in India, selected better stations for founding their foreign settlements. The jungle has since been cleared away to a certain distance, the streets properly drained, and the ponds filled up, by which a vast surface of stagnant water has been removed; but the air of the town is still much affected by the vicinity of the Sunderbunds. At high water the river is here a full mile in breadth, but during the ebb-tide the opposite shore exposes a long range of dry sand-banks. On approaching Calcutta from the sea the stranger is much struck with the magnificence of its appearance; the elegant villas on each side of the river, the government botanical gardens, the spires of the churches and temples, and the strong and regular citadel of Fort William.

In A.D. 1717 it exhibited a very different appearance. The present town was then a village appertaining to the district of Nuddea, the houses of which were scattered about in clusters of ten or twelve each, and the inhabitants chiefly husbandmen. A forest existed to the south of Champaul Ghaut, which was afterwards removed by degrees. Between Kidderpoor and the forest were two villages, whose inhabitants were invited to settle in Calcutta by the ancient family of the Seats, who were at that time merchants of great note, and very instrumental in bringing Calcutta into the form of a town. Fort William and the esplanade are the site where this forest and the two villages above-mentioned stood. In 1717 there was a straggling village consisting of small houses, surrounded by puddles of water, where now stand the elegant houses of Chowringhee; and Calcutta may at this period be described as extending to Chitpoor bridge, but the intervening space consisted of ground covered with jungle. In 1742 a ditch was dug round a considerable portion of Calcutta, to prevent the incursions of the Maharattas; and it appears from Orme's History of the War in Bengal, that at the time of its capture by Seraje ud Dowlah, in 1756, there were about seventy houses in the town belonging to the English. What are now called the esplanade, the site of Fort William, and Chowringhee, were so late as 1756 a complete jungle, interspersed with huts, and small pieces of grazing and arable land.

The modern town of Calcutta extends along the east side of the river above six miles, but the breadth varies much at different places. The esplanade between the town and Fort William leaves a grand opening, along the border of which is placed the new government house, erected by the Marquis Wellesley; and continued on a line with this edifice is a range of magnificent houses, ornamented with spacious verandas. Chowringhee, formerly a collection of native huts, is now an entire village of palaces, and extends for a considerable distance into the country. The architecture of the houses is Grecian, which does not appear adapted for the country or climate, the pillars of the verandahs being too elevated to keep out the sun during the morning and evening, while in the wet season it is deluged with rain. Perhaps a more confined Hindoo style of building, although less ornamental, might be found of more practical comfort. The principal square extends about 500 yards each way, and contains in the centre an extensive tank, surrounded by a handsome wall and railing, and having a gradation of steps to the bottom, which is sixty feet from the top of its banks. A range of indifferent-looking houses, known by the name of the Writers' Buildings, occupies one side of the square. The famous black hole no longer exists, it having been taken down in 1818 with all that remained of the old fort, to make room

for some new improvements, when its substantial solidity was particularly remarked; but this consolidation is probably the usual effect of time, being generally apparent in all old buildings of long duration.

The government house is the most remarkable public edifice in Calcutta. The lower story forms a rustic basement, with arcades to the building, which is Ionic. On the north side there is a flight of steps, under which carriages drive to the entrance, and on the south side there is a circular colonnade with a dome. The four wings, one at each corner of the building, are connected with it by circular passages, so long as to secure their enjoying the air all round, from whatever quarter the wind blows. These wings contain all the private apartments; and in the north-east corner is the council room, decorated like the other public rooms, with portraits. The centre of the building contains two uncommonly fine rooms; the lowest is paved with dark grey marble, and supported by doric columns, chunamed, resembling marble. Above this hall is the ball-room, floored with dark polished wood, and supported by Ionic pillars. Both rooms are lighted by a profusion of cut-glass lustres, suspended from a painted ceiling, which having been destroyed by the white ants, was replaced by a plain white ceiling with gilt mouldings.

Besides the government house, the other public buildings are, a town-hall, a court of justice, and two churches of the established religion, and one for the Scotch Presbyterian worship, which is a very handsome edifice: there are also churches for the Portuguese Catholics, another of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian church, many small Hindoo pagodas, Mahomedan mosques, and a Seik temple. The hospital and gaol are to the south of the town. The botanic garden is beautifully situated on the west bank of the river, and gives the name of Garden Reach to a bend of the Hooghly. Above the garden there is an extensive teak plantation, which is not a native of this part of India, but which appears to thrive well. There are several private dock-yards opposite to Calcutta, and others above and below it, on the western bank of the river.

The black town extends along the river to the north, and exhibits a striking contrast to the portion inhabited by Europeans. Persons who have only seen the latter, which is probably the case with a great many individuals, have little conception of the remainder of this externally magnificent city. The streets here are generally narrow, dirty, and unpaved; the houses of two stories are of brick, with flat terraced roofs; but the great majority are mud cottages covered with small tiles, with side walls of mats and bamboos, and other combustible materials, the whole swarming with population within and without. Fires, as may be inferred from the construction, are of frequent occurrence, but do not in the least affect the European quarter, which from the mode of building is quite incombustible. Although brick, mortar, and wood, are not scarce in Calcutta, yet the money sunk in building a house is very considerable, and being a perishable commodity, requiring constant repair, house-rent is proportionally high. The white ants are also so rapid and silent in their destructive operations, that sometimes every beam in a house may be completely excavated internally, while outside it appears perfectly sound.

Fort William stands on the banks of the river about a quarter of a mile below the town, and is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India. It is of an octagon form, five of the sides being regular, while the forms of the other three next the river are according to local circumstances. As no approach by land is to be apprehended on this side, the river coming up to the glacis, it was merely necessary to guard against attack by water, by providing a great superiority of fire, which purpose has been attained by giving the citadel towards the water the form

of a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the course of the river. From these faces the guns continue to bear upon the objects until they approach very near to the city, when they would receive the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This part is likewise defended by adjoining bastions, and a counterscarp that covers them.

The five regular sides are towards the land; the bastions here have all very salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks, extremely spacious, and an inverse double flank at the height of the berme. This double flank would be an excellent defence, and would retard the passages of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed. The orillon preserves it from the effect of ricochet shot, and it is not to be seen from any parallel. The berme opposite to the curtain serves as a road to it, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a fausse-braye.

The ditch is dry with a cunette in the middle, which receives the water of the ditch by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered by a large half-moon, without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt; but the faces each mount thirteen pieces of heavy artillery, thus giving to the defence of these ravelins a five of twenty-six guns. The demi-bastions, which terminate the five regular fronts on each side, are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half-moons, are pierced with thirteen embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts, constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles; the whole is faced and palisadoed with care, kept in admirable condition, and capable of making a vigorous defence against any army, however formidable. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half-moons being extremely acute, project a great way, so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach.

This citadel was commenced by Lord Clive soon after the battle of Plassey, and was intended by him to be complete in every respect; but it has since been discovered, that it is erected on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, that of a tenable post in case of extremity, as the number of troops required to garrison it properly would be able to keep the field. It is capable of containing 15,000 men, and the works are so extensive that 10,000 would be required to defend them efficiently, and from first to last have cost the East-India Company two millions sterling. The works are very little raised above the level of the surrounding country, and of course do not make an imposing appearance, nor are they even perceptible until closely approached. This excites great surprise in natives coming from the interior, who always associate the idea of strength with that of elevation, and usually mistake the barracks for the fort; which, however, only contains buildings that are absolutely necessary, such as the residence of the commandant, quarters for the officers and troops, and the arsenal. The interior of the fort is perfectly open, presenting to the view large grass plots and gravel walks, kept cool by rows of trees, and in the finest order intermixed with piles of balls, bomb-shells, and cannon. Each gate has a house over it, destined for the residence of commandants of corps, and the principal staff officers of the garrison. Between the fort and town an extensive level space intervenes, called the esplanade.

The garrison is usually composed of one or two European regiments, one of artillery with artificers, and workmen for the arsenal. The native corps, amounting to about 4,000 men, are generally cantoned at Barrackpoor, fifteen miles higher up the river, and supply about 1,200 monthly to perform the duty of the fort. The wells in the different outworks of Fort William, some of which are five hun-

dred yards from the river, during the hot season become so brackish, as to be unfit for culinary purposes or for washing; government has in consequence formed an immense reservoir, occupying one of the bastions, to be filled when required with rain water.

Until 1814, it had always been a commonly received opinion, that the soil in the vicinity of Calcutta was particularly moist and full of springs; but the reverse was proved in that year, as after boring to the depth of 140 feet, no springs of any description were perceptible. In 1817, while deepening a tank facing the corner of Esplanade Row, numerous massy trunks of trees were discovered, about sixty feet under the surface, standing in an erect position, with the roots and branches diverging; and similar phenomena occurred in 1822, while deepening the great tank on the Chowringhee road. During the boring operations above-mentioned, a thin stratum of coal and blue clay was reached, fifty-three feet below the surface, facts all tending to prove a great accumulation of alluvial soil. The acknowledged improvement of the climate in and about Calcutta of late years, may be ascribed to the attention paid by the police to a general system of drainage, and to the cutting of broad straight roads through the contiguous woods, in the direction of the prevailing winds, which act as ventilators and purify the air. If some less swampy production could be substituted in the neighbourhood for rice, perhaps a still greater degree of salubrity might be attained. The rainy season at Calcutta usually begins about the 12th of June, and ends about the 14th of October.

Calcutta possesses the advantage of an excellent inland navigation, foreign imports being transported with wonderful facility, on the Ganges and its subsidiary streams, to the north-western quarters of Hindostan, while the valuable productions of the interior are received by the same channels. The quantity of merchandize at all times deposited in Calcutta is enormous, and the amount of native capital employed in the government funds, loans to individuals, internal and external trade is very large. The formerly timid Hindoo now lends money on respondentia, on distant voyages, engages in speculations to remote parts of the world, ensures as an underwriter, and erects indigo works in different parts of the provinces. He has the advantage of trading on his own capital with much greater frugality than a European, and exclusive of his property, enjoys the most perfect toleration of his religion. Besides the government bank there are also three private banks established in Calcutta, which circulate to a considerable amount; and one of these has branches in the Rajeshahy district, with offices at Bauleah, Moorshedabad, and Nattore. It may be computed that the paper circulation in Bengal, from these different sources, exceeds a crore of rupees, or one million sterling.

There are three artificial canals in the vicinity of Calcutta, and it is highly desirable that the water communication with the upper provinces should be uninterrupted, without passing through the unhealthy and dangerous channels of the Sunderbunds; but, owing to the difficulties that beset hydraulic operations in Bengal, no feasible plan has as yet been devised to keep it permanently open. Through these canals, and along the various streams of flowing water, innumerable small craft daily arrive from the interior, loaded with the produce and manufactures of their respective countries, while the shipping collected opposite to the town presents a magnificent spectacle. The river in many places reaches almost to the base of the houses, and the people descend by flights of steps built of brick masonry. Owing to the custom of throwing dead bodies into it, the water is sufficiently dirty; yet it is resorted to in crowds by the natives for the purposes of ablution. The rapidity of the tides up and down causes a constant circulation both of air and water, and tends to prevent the deleterious ef-

fects which would otherwise result from a body of water containing such putrid infusions, were it in the slightest degree stagnant, or even torpid in its motions. In 1826, besides the government steam-vessel the Enterprize, there was the Diana and the Comet of twenty-four horse power, fitted up as packets to proceed up and down the river with passengers, effecting in three weeks what used to occupy as many months. Besides these were two armed government steam-boats getting ready, and one for deepening the river.

There have been various opinions regarding the population of Calcutta, but it does not appear that any very correct census has yet been taken. In 1752 Mr. Holwell estimated the number of houses within the Company's bounds at 51,132, and the constant inhabitants at 409,056 persons, without reckoning the multitude daily coming and going. In 1802 the police magistrates reckoned the population of Calcutta at 600,000; in 1810 Sir Henry Russell, the chief judge, computed the population of the town and its environs at one million; and General Kyd the population of the city alone at between 400,000 and 500,000 inhabitants. The adjacent country is also so densely peopled, that in 1802 the police magistrates were of opinion that Calcutta, with a circuit of twenty-miles, comprehended 2,225,000. In 1819 the School Society estimated the native population of Calcutta at 750,000: yet in 1822 we have the following details.

The returns of the population given for the four divisions are: Christians 13,138; Mahomedans 48,162; Hindoos 118,203; Chinese 414—total 179,917. It has been ascertained that the extent of Calcutta from the Maharatta ditch at the northern extremity, to the circular road at the southern circuit of Chowringhee, is not more than four miles and a-half, and that its average breadth is only one mile and a-half. The lower or south division of the town, which comprizes Chowringhee, is but thinly peopled, the European houses being widely dispersed; but the portion named Colingah is chiefly inhabited by natives. The divisions between Durramtollah and the Bhow bazar has a denser population, as it comprehends the most thickly inhabited European quarter, besides a great many Creole christians. The northern section between the Bhow and Mutchua bazars certainly swarms with population, but the upper division to the north of the Mutchua Bazar is comparatively thinly covered with houses, presenting towards the north and east extensive gardens, large tanks, and ruinous habitations. The number of persons entering the town daily from the suburbs and across the river, has been estimated by stationary peons and sircars placed to count them, at 100,000. Upon the whole, therefore, in June 1822, it appeared to be the opinion of the magistrates from the returns laid before them, that taking the resident population at about 200,000 persons, and those entering the town daily at 100,000, the sum total (300,000) would give a tolerably accurate approximation to the real number.

By some strange arrangement in the above calculation, the population of the suburbs of Calcutta appears to be excluded and separated from that of the town, a process which, if adopted in England, would reduce London to a very moderate number; nor was the simple expedient of counting the houses resorted to. So long ago as 1798 these amounted by enumeration to 78,760, and there is no reason to suppose they have since decreased. A great number of the adult sojourners in Calcutta leave their families in the adjacent villages, so that the proportion of children within the body of the town is remarkably small.

The Calcutta society is numerous, gay, and convivial, and the fêtes given by the Governors-general splendid and well arranged. Each of the principal officers of government have also their public days for the reception of their friends, independent of which

not a day passes, particularly during the cold season, without several large dinner parties of from thirty to forty. Besides the public subscription assemblies, there are select evening meetings at regular intervals, under the name of conversaziones, accompanied by music, dancing, cards, and other amusements. There is likewise a handsome new theatre, supported principally by amateurs; but although the performances only take place once a fortnight, they are often but thinly attended. Public concerts have also of late been very much in vogue, and, like the theatre, are partly supported by amateur talent.

It is usual to rise early to enjoy the cool air of the morning, which is particularly pleasant before sunrise. Betwixt one and two a meal is taken which is called tiffin, after which many retire to bed for two or three hours. The dinner is commonly after sunset, which necessarily keeps the guests up till midnight. The viands are excellent, and served in great profusion; and as the heat of the climate does not admit of their being kept, great part is at last thrown out to the pariah dogs and the birds of prey. The lower orders of Portuguese, to whom alone they could be serviceable, cannot consume the whole; and the religious prejudices of the native servants prevent their tasting any food prepared by persons not of their caste or religion. To this circumstance is to be attributed the amazing flocks of crows, kites, and vultures, which, undisturbed by man, live together in amicable society, and almost cover the houses and gardens. In their profession of scavengers, the kites and crows are assisted during the day by the voracious stork adjutant, and after sunset by pariah dogs, foxes, and jackals, which then emerge from the jungles, and with their howling make night hideous.

The wines chiefly drank are Madeira and claret: the first, which is excellent, during dinner, the latter afterwards. The claret being medicated for the voyage, is by some considered too strong, and both sorts (more especially Madeira, which is bottled in the country) incur great danger from the contiguity of musk-rats, which impart so disgusting a flavour as to render it undrinkable. As a general maxim the latest imported claret is always the best.

The Calcutta market supplies a great variety of game, such as snipes, wild ducks, teal, and different species of the ortolan tribe, the whole comparatively cheap. The wild venison is much inferior to that of Britain, but the park or stall-fed is equally good. The hare is a very poor creature, and differs in many qualities from that of England, being deficient in size, strength, and swiftness; an observation also applicable to the Bengal fox, which is every way a contemptible animal. The tables of the gentlemen in Calcutta are distinguished by an infinite variety of delicious fruits, procured at a moderate expense, such as pine-apples, plantains, mangoes, pomeloes or shaddocks, melons of all sorts, oranges, custard apples, guavas, peaches, to which of late years strawberries of European, and leechees, loquats, and whampees, of Chinese origin, have been added. But the grand luxury of Calcutta is the mangoe-fish (so named from its appearing during the mangoe season) the taste and flavour of which can never be sufficiently extolled. By the natives they are named tapaswi, or penitent, fish (abbreviated by Europeans to tipsy), from their resembling a class of religious penitents who ought never to shave.

The usual mode of visiting in Calcutta is in palanquins, but many gentlemen have carriages adapted to the climate, and the breed of horses by the government stud and importation has been greatly improved. It is universally the practice to drive out between sunset and dinner, and as it becomes dark servants with torches go out and meet their masters, and run before the carriages with astonishing swiftness, and for a wonderful length of time. It is still the custom, except at public places, or very formal evening-parties, for the gentlemen to

dress in short white cotton jackets, which are well suited to the heat of the climate; but on ceremonious occasions in coats of English broadcloth.

The British inhabitants stationary in Calcutta and scattered through the provinces, are generally hospitable in the highest degree, and most liberal where their assistance is wanted. When an officer of respectability dies, in either service, leaving a wife or children, a subscription is immediately commenced, which in every instance has proved generous, and not unfrequently has conferred on the parties a degree of affluence that the life of the parent or husband could not for many years have accomplished. Their zeal for the promotion of religion, science, and literature, will be best estimated, after perusal of the following list of learned and benevolent institutions established by them and the government in Calcutta and the upper province, within the last half century.

The Asiatic Society was planned by Sir Wm. Jones on the outward voyage from England, and formed into a regular institution on the 15th January 1784. Its principal object is to concentrate in one focus the valuable knowledge that may be occasionally attained of Asia, or at least to preserve many little tracts and essays, the writers of which might not think them of sufficient importance for separate publication. From this period may be dated the commencement of all accurate information regarding India in general, and Hindostan in particular, which even at the present day is but imperfectly understood by European readers. Recently a medical and a phrenological society have been established, which publish their works periodically: the other learned and benevolent institutions are so numerous in Calcutta and the provinces that nothing more than their names can be given.

The college of Fort William, for finishing the education of the civil servants commenced at Haileybury, the Government Sanscrit College, the Madrissa or Government Mahomedan College, the Vidalaya or Anglo-Indian College, the Benares College, the Agra College, the Government schools at Chinsura and Benares, the free school at Cawnpoor, the school at Ajmeer, the Boglipoor School, the Calcutta Grammar School, the Armenian Academy, the Benevolent Institution, the Parental Academic Institution, the School for Trades, the Committee of Public Instruction, the School-Book Society, the Female Juvenile Society, the Ladies' Society for Native Female Education, the Institution for the Instruction of Indigent Children at Serampoor, the United Charity and Free School.

The religious and charitable institutions are: the Auxiliary Bible Society, the Bible Association, the Committee of the Church Missionary Society, the Church Missionary Association, the Diocesan Committee for promoting Christian Knowledge, the Auxiliary Missionary Society, the Bishop's College, the Bethel Union, the Seaman's Friend Society, the Military Orphan Society, the Military Widows' Fund, Lord Clive's Fund, the King's Military Fund, the Marine Pension Fund, the Civil Fund, the Mariners' and General Widows' Fund, the Presidency General Hospital, the Native Hospital, the Hospital for Native Lunatics, the Government Establishment for Vaccination, the School for Native Doctors, the Charitable Fund for the Relief of Distressed Europeans, the European Female Orphan Society.

In 1825 the following newspapers were published in Calcutta, *viz.* "The John Bull," "the Bengal Harcarrah and Scotsman," daily papers; "the Government Gazette," and "the India Gazette," twice a week, and "the Bengal Weekly Messenger," published on Sunday. The native newspapers then were the "Merat ul Akbar," the "Jami Jehan Nama," "the Sungbaud Cowmuddy," and "the Sumochar Chundrica," all weekly; the two first in Persian, and the two last in Bengalese. In 1826 two

additional Bengalese weekly newspapers were added to those before existing.

The government grants a princely allowance to their civil servants; but, large as it is, it does not always suffice for the expenses of the juniors, many of whom on their arrival set up an extravagant establishment of horses, carriages, and servants, and thereby involve themselves in embarrassments at a very early period of their lives. To support this profuse mode of living they are obliged to borrow from their dewan, generally a monied native, who seeks the advancement of his family through the influence of his debtors, whose extravagance and dissipation he encourages until their difficulties are almost inextricable. While the civilian remains in an inferior situation, the debt to the dewan continues to accumulate, and when higher appointments are at length reached, it requires years to clear off the incumbrances of his juvenile thoughtlessness. Of late these responsible situations have been rendered of still more difficult attainment, by the determination of government to regard extravagance as an essential drawback from the claims of all candidates for offices of trust. Those who are incapable of exercising self-denial at the commencement of their career, have only themselves to blame if they are denied that confidence in the strength and integrity of their characters, which every one seeking important public trusts ought to possess; nor can the government sacrifice the duty it owes to the people, through any consideration for the interest of incautious servants. Instances of this species of insanity (for it deserves no other name) are now rare, compared with what they were at an earlier period of the British acquisitions; and, notwithstanding the multiplied temptations, a very great majority of those who arrive at the higher stations wholly escape the contagion, and are distinguished by the most unsullied integrity of character. Whenever a deviation has occurred, it may invariably be traced to the imprudence of the young man on his first arrival, and his subsequent slavery to his dewan.

Calcutta is in every point of view a new city, almost as much so with regard to its native gentry as to its European population. The great native families, who now contribute to its splendour, are of very recent origin; indeed, scarcely ten could be named who possessed wealth before the rise of the English power, it having been accumulated under our sovereignty, chiefly in our service, and entirely through our protection.

The British merchants are a numerous and respectable body of men, many of whom have acquired large fortunes by their industry and enterprize, and conduce essentially to the prosperity of the province. Here they display a liberality in their manner of living, seldom equalled in other parts of the world; and their acts of charity and munificence to persons in distress, and generosity and forbearance towards each other, have perhaps never been surpassed.

The Armenians were formerly a numerous and affluent class of foreign traders, but latterly this nation has rather been on the decline. The number of Greek merchants is not considerable, whereas the Portuguese houses of agency rank next, in point of number, to the English. A very considerable number of the progeny of that nation reside in Calcutta and its environs, and have approximated very closely to the natives in manners and appearance. Among the various classes of money changers, no mention is made of the Jews, few of whom for many centuries have settled in Hindostan; and Calcutta is, probably, the only very opulent town that is almost wholly without them. The practices and occupations they follow in Europe are here engrossed by the native Sirkars, banyans, and writers, who are quite a match for any Jew. The shops of these petty traffickers, although better than their houses, are mean and

disagreeable; the European shops are singularly splendid. Some of the native traders have made or inherited large fortunes, and the public apartments of a few are furnished after the European fashion, with elegant chandeliers, pier glasses, couches, chests of drawers, writing-desks, and two or three hundred chairs; while in the other rooms the images of their gods are seen decorated with gilding, red paint, and precious stones. Some have taken to the drinking of tea, some keep English coaches and equipages, and one individual was noted for having also an English coachman.

Without being attached to some department of the service, or trained up to some mechanical trade, there is little hope of prosperity to a young man migrating on chance from Europe. Here all the inferior situations of clerks, overseers, &c. are necessarily occupied by the natives, and it is by these gradations in Europe, that young men rise to opulence in the commercial world. It is scarcely in the power, even of a governor-general, to assist a person of respectable connexions who does not belong to the service, or one of the liberal professions; and, although the climate of the province is not essentially improved, Europeans are now much better acquainted with the means of counteracting its effects, and deaths are far from being so frequent as formerly. Regularity of living, avoiding too much exposure to the sun, and all extremes, even of abstinence, are much more practised by the modern inhabitants than they were by the earlier adventurers; vacancies consequently in any line or trade are of much rarer occurrence.

It is in Calcutta that the effect of the intercourse between Europeans and the natives is in any degree visible, as there alone an indistinct sort of link may be discerned between the rulers and the people. The lowest and poorest Europeans, and the native-born Christians and Portuguese, do in some slight degree, mix with the natives in their ordinary concerns and amusements, just sufficient to produce a very inconsiderable change in their manners and character. The establishment of the supreme court, and the intercourse between the natives and the lowest officers of that court, must be considered another cause of the same nature; but by these causes their morals have not been in the slightest respect improved; on the contrary, they have learned all the mean arts of European chicanery, imposture, and litigiousness, in addition to their aboriginal stock, without acquiring a particle of plain dealing, firmness, independence of spirit, or useful knowledge. They appear to imbibe only those principles of the European character which tend to impair the mildness and simplicity of their own; and whenever, in the behaviour of the natives, insolence, ill-nature, coarseness, brutality, or drunkenness (qualities hostile to their national character) are observed, the change may be invariably traced to their intercourse with low Europeans.

The supreme court of judicature in Calcutta consists of a chief justice and two puisne judges, nominated to their situations in India by the king. Its cognizance extends to all British subjects, that is, natives, or the descendants of natives of the British isles in India, and to all inhabitants within the parochial limits of Calcutta, as enclosed by the Maharatta ditch, beyond which, however, the suburbs now extend. In suits to which the natives are parties, the judges are enjoined by act of parliament to respect the usages of the country; in matters of inheritance or contract, the rule of decision is to be the law acknowledged by the litigant parties. Should only one of the parties be a Mahomedan or Hindoo, it is to be the law acknowledged by the defendant. Criminal offences are tried by a jury consisting exclusively of British subjects; in trials of a civil nature, the judge decides both the law and the fact. The supreme court also tries criminal charges against the government servants, and civil suits

in which the government or its servants are concerned.

Little morality is learned in a court of justice; and, notwithstanding the severity of the police and of the English laws, it appears probable that the morals of the native inhabitants are worse in Calcutta than in the provincial districts. This is not to be attributed solely to the size, population, and indiscriminate society of the capital, but in part to the supreme court, every native connected with which appearing to have his morals contaminated by the intimacy. In mentioning this evil, it is not intended in the remotest degree to attribute it to any individual, or body of men, or to speak with disrespect of the institution itself; but merely to mention a fact, which has probably been remarked by every judge who ever sat on the bench. Within the last forty years the natives have attained a sort of legal knowledge, as it is usually denominated, consisting of a skill in the arts of collusion, intrigue, subornation and perjury, which enables them to perplex and baffle the magistrate with infinite facility.

But notwithstanding the temptations to which the natives are exposed, it is surprising how seldom thefts and burglaries are committed on the property of Europeans, who seldom in Bengal take any precautions to prevent their occurrence. In some families thirty or forty domestics, many of them natives of distant provinces, sleep all night within the enclosure, or in the passages and verandas of the house, where every door is open, and detection almost impossible. Owing to their extreme timidity, they seldom venture to rob openly or on a large scale, preferring a more indirect and complicated system of small pilfering and cheating.

Besides the supreme court, Calcutta is the head-quarters of a court of appeal and circuit, which comprehends the following districts, *viz.* Burdwan, the Jungle Mahals, Midnapoor, Cuttack, Jessore, Nuddea, Hooghly, and the twenty-four pergunnahs.—(*Public Documents MS. and printed, Sir Henry Strachey, Lord Valentia, Fullarton, Tennant, Milburn, Harrington, M. Graham, Major Rennell, &c.*)

Calicoulan.—A town in the province of Travancore, 116 miles N.W. from Cape Comorin; lat. 9° 11′ N., lon. 76° 33′ E.

Caliadeh.—A village in the province of Malwa, situated on the river Sipra, five miles north from the city of Oojein. This place is remarkable for a lofty, heavy and whimsical structure, called the water-palace, built on an insular eminence in the channel of the Sipra. This edifice, of which several very inaccurate and exaggerated descriptions have been given (believed to have been constructed by the Mahomedan kings of Malwa) is entirely devoid of architectural attractions, and its quadrangular tank of masonry in the bed of the Sipra, including a terrace and two square pavilions with a low arched bridge of communication, in no respect corresponds with the fanciful pictures that have been given of them.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Calicut (*Calicodu*).—A subdivision of the Malabar province, extending along the sea-coast between the parallels of 10° and 12° north lat., and one of the principal countries of that extraordinary Hindoo race, the Nairs, the Calicut Raja (the Zamorin of Europeans) being one of their most respected chiefs. By his own tribe, and the other natives, he is styled the Tamuri Raja. All the males of the family are called Tamburans, and the females Tamburettics. All the children of every Tamburetti are entitled to these appellations, and rise according to seniority to the highest dignities that belong to the family. These ladies are generally impregnated by Nambouries (Brahmins) and sometimes by the higher rank of Nairs; but the sacred character of the Namburies always insures them a preference. They live in the houses of their brothers, and never have any intercourse with their husbands, which would be reckoned scandalous.

The oldest man of the family by

the female line is the Tamuri Raja, or Zamorin, and is regularly crowned. He pretends to be of higher rank than the Brahmins, and inferior only to the invisible gods, which pretensions are admitted by his subjects, but held to be absurd and abominable by the Brahmins, who treat him as a sudra. The Zamorin, although of a caste inferior to the Cochin Raja, and possessed of less extensive dominions, was commonly reckoned of equal rank, which is attributed to the superior prowess of his people. In 1767, when Hyder invaded Malabar, the Cochin Raja quietly submitted to pay tribute, while the pride of the Zamorin refused any kind of submission, and after an unavailing resistance, being made prisoner, set fire to the house in which he was confined, and burned along with it. Several of his personal attendants, who were accidently excluded when he shut the door, afterwards threw themselves into the flames and perished with their master.—(*F. Buchanan, &c.*)

Calicut.—A town in the province of Malabar, of which it was the former capital, 103 miles S.W. from Seringapatam; lat. 11° 15′ N., lon. 75° 50′ E. The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, arrived at Calicut on the 18th of May, A.D. 1498, ten months and two days after their departure from Lisbon. In 1509 Don Fernando Continho, marechal of Portugal, attacked Calicut with 3,000 troops, but was slain in the assault, and his army repulsed with much slaughter. In 1766 it was invaded and conquered by Hyder, who enlarged and improved the fort; but Tippoo afterwards destroyed both fort and town, removing the inhabitants to Nellura, which he called Furruckabad, being, like all the Mahomedans of India, a great changer of the old Pagan names. Fifteen months after this compulsory migration the English conquered the province, and the inhabitants returned with great joy to their old residence. The town in 1800 contained above 5,000 houses, and was rapidly improving; the inhabitants, chiefly Moplays, named Chulias among the Eastern Islands. The principal exports are pepper, teak, sandal-wood, cardamoms, coir, cordage, and wax. Travelling distance from Seringapatam, 129 miles south-west.—(*F. Buchanan, Wilks, Bruce, Rennell, &c.*)

Calicoote.—A town in the northern circars, twenty-one miles N. from Ganjam; lat. 19° 23′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E.

Calingapatam.—A small seaport in the northern circars, sixteen miles E. from Cicacole; lat. 18° 15′ N., lon. 85° 11′ E. In 1820 this place consisted of about thirty cottages, clustered round the master-attendant's bungalow; yet there is a European burying-ground here, and small coasting vessels are still built and repaired in mud docks. The river Paddair joins the sea near Calingapatam, by a debouchure almost a mile wide, which is with difficulty forded.—(*Fullarton, &c.*)

Callacoil.—A town in the Carnatic division of Marawa, sixty miles S.S.W. from Tanjore; lat. 9° 55′ N., lon. 78° 54′ E.

Callacaud.—A town in the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, thirty-nine miles N. by E. from Cape Comorin; lat. 8° 36′ N., lon. 77° 53′ E.

Callao.—An island in the Eastern seas lying opposite to the coast of Cochin-China, and about eight miles east of a considerable river, on the banks of which stands the town of Faifoo, and not far from the harbour of Turon; lat. 15° 53′ N. In length it may be estimated at five miles by two the average breadth. This is a picturesque island of considerable altitude, one of the mountains exceeding 1,400 feet; but it is only inhabited on the south-west coast, where there is a beautiful spot of about 200 acres, covered with neat houses, temples, clusters of trees, and small hillocks covered with shrubs.—(*Staunton, &c.*)

Callianee *(Calyani)*.—A strong hilly country, extending along the sea-

coast of the Aurungabad province, opposite to the island of Bombay, bounded on the east by the western ghauts. The principal towns are Callianee, Bassein, Panwell, Chowl, Rajapoor, Dassgong, and Mhar; the largest streams, the Tanja, Cailas, the Bhagirati, and Savatri. When conquered from the Peshwa, the towns were described as large and well-peopled; in 1820, however, the villages were generally small, thinly scattered, and of a poor appearance, consisting principally of clusters of ill-built and rudely thatched huts.—(*Public MS. Documents, Fullarton, &c.*)

Callianee.—The capital of the above district, situated in the province of Aurungabad, on the south side of the Cailas river, thirty miles N.E. from Bombay; lat. 19° 15′ N., lon. 73° 15′ E. This town sustained many sieges during the wars between the Moguls and Maharattas, and is surrounded by ruins of various sorts. It is, notwithstanding all its vicissitudes, still a populous town, and carries on some traffic in cocoa-nuts, oil, coarse cloths, brass, and earthenware.—(*M. Graham, Rennell, &c.*)

Calliany (*Calyani*).—A small division of the province of Beeder, bounded on the north by the Tierna river, and on the east by the Beeder district. The town of Calliany, from which it derives its name, stands in lat. 17° 50′ N., lon. 77° 5′ E., thirty-five miles west from the city of Beeder.

Calliandroog (*Calyanadurga*).—A town in the Balaghaut ceded districts, forty-two miles S. by E. from Bellary; lat. 13° 42′ N., lon. 77° 13′ E.

Callinger (*Calinajara*).—A town and fortress in the Allahabad province, district of Bundelcund; lat. 25° 6′ N., lon. 80° 25′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Callinger is a stone fort, situated on a lofty mountain. Here is an idol named Kalbihroop, eighteen cubits in height; at the distance of twenty coss from the fort husbandmen sometimes find small diamonds, and in the neighbourhood is an iron mine."

The summit of the table-land of Callinger is at least 1,200 feet in elevation above the neighbouring plains, and the base of the mountain covers above ten miles in circumference. At the foot of the northern front of the hill stands the town, which in 1820 was still of considerable size, although of a ruinous exterior and unfortified. The walled plain comprehends the whole summit of the hill, and contained the public buildings, the quarters for the garrison, and several large tanks, always filled with water. This plain, or interior plateau, is almost five miles in circumference, and completely encompassed by a wall of Mahomedan construction, at some places elevated above the level of the summit, and others on a level with it; the great body of this immense mural rampart is composed of rough, uncut, and unplastered stones, and its construction must have required both great time and labour. The fortress of Callinger resembles in its situation that of Gualior, but surpasses it both in size and strength; it was taken by the British in 1812, after a bloody siege; and in 1820 a party of sappers and miners were sent there from Calcutta, to destroy the works and dismantle the fortress.

Calowr.—See Cahlore.

Calpee.—See Kalpee.

Calpenteen.—A peninsula, or neck of land, which extends almost sixty miles along the west coast of Ceylon, and during the north-east monsoon becomes an island. The surface is level, the soil sandy, and covered with cocoa-nut trees, the fruit of which is here the chief article of food. The population is considerable, and a small trade in the export of salted fish and fish roes is carried on to Columbo, from whence rice is brought in large canoes, made from the trunk of a single tree brought from the continent.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

Calsi.—A large village in Northern Hindostan, situated four miles

above the confluence of the Touse and Jumna, within the mountains of Jaunsar, of which district it is the capital; lat. 30° 31′ N. It is also a mart of trade between the mountaineers and people of the plains.—(*Capt. Hodgson, &c.*)

Caltura.—A town and small fort in the island of Ceylon, twenty-six miles south from Columbo; lat. 6° 34′ N., lon. 79° 53′ E. Here, as at every village on the west coast of Ceylon, arrack is distilled from the juice of the palmira and cocoa-nut trees, and is an article of considerable traffic. The travelling distance from Columbo is twenty-eight miles, by an inland navigation consisting of rivers connected by canals.—(*Cordiner, &c.*)

Calygong Hills.—A range of hills in the Deccan, which separate the Gundwana province from that of Candeish, and situated between the Tuptee and Nerbudda rivers.

Calymere Point.—A promontory on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, district of Tinnevelly, near to which some pagodas are visible from the sea; lat. 10° 18′ N., lon. 79° 56′ E.

Camao.—A town in the province of Cambodia, near to its southern extremity, mostly inhabited by Cochin Chinese; lat. 8° 50′ N., lon. 104° 56′ E.

Cambay (*Cambaja*).—An ancient city in the province of Gujerat, situated at the upper part of the Gulf of Cambay, and mentioned by Marco Polo about A.D. 1295. Lat. 22° 21′ N., lon. 72° 48′ E. Near the town the tides rush with much turbulence, and rise and fall forty feet, so that at high water ships can anchor near the town, but at low water the channel becomes dry, and vessels must lie in the mud until it returns. When Ahmedabad flourished as the capital of an opulent and independent state, Cambay was its sea-port, and experienced great commercial prosperity; but it decayed with its metropolis, and is now much reduced. Various Hindoo and Mahomedan edifices, however, are still to be seen, and the ruins of many more, especially of the Jain sect, which appears at one period to have been predominant in this neighbourhood. In a Jain subterranean temple at Cambay, in 1780, there were two massy statues of their deities, one white and the other black. The inscription on the first intimated that it was the image of Parswanatha, a Jain deity, or rather deified saint, carved and consecrated in the reign of the Emperor Acber, A.D. 1602. The black one had merely the date inscribed, with the names of the two Banyans who brought it there.

The surrounding country is pleasant, and when properly cultivated, yields ample returns of wheat and Hindostany grains, indigo, cotton, and oil seeds; but it has been long managed in an indolent and slovenly manner. It is said that in the city and adjacent country there were formerly 50,000 wells and tanks; but the inhabitants, to prevent the Maharatta armies encamping in their vicinity, drained most of the tanks, and filled many of the wells up. Cambay formerly exported fabrics of silk, chintz, gold stuffs, cornelian stones, and indigo; but these manufactures have gradually dwindled away, and the staples now are wheat and other grains to Bombay. The silversmiths here still emboss very neatly. Their process is to fill the cup, watch-case, box, or other vessel with gum-lac, after which they punch with a small chisel the figures of flowers, elephants, and such different varieties of birds and animals as are required. The Persian language was formerly spoken here in great purity, on account of the number of emigrants who settled here during the civil wars of Persia, and also many of Nadir Shah's soldiers, who deserted and retired with their plunder to Cambay. In 1780 this city and territory were governed by a native prince named Mohmaun Khan, who paid a heavy tribute to the Maharattas, whose Peshwa exercised a divided jurisdiction, both civil and criminal. Since the fall of that potentate these rights have devolved

to the British government, to whom the present nabob pays tribute, and acknowledges his subordination.—(*Forbes, Drummond, Wilford, Public MS. Documents, Elmore, Mallet, Rennell, &c.*)

CAMBAY *(Gulf of)*.—A gulf on the north-west coast of India, which penetrates about 150 miles into the province of Gujerat. The tides in this arm of the sea run with amazing velocity, and at low water leave the bottom of the gulf dry from lat. 22° 3′ N. to Cambay town. No vessel attempts to go above Gongway in one tide from Jumbosier: for if they cannot get into Cambay creek they must return to Gongway, which is five leagues distant. In many places the current is so rapid, that if a ship takes the ground she immediately upsets, and in all probability the whole crew perish. It is supposed the depth of water in this gulf has been progressively decreasing for more than two centuries. Fifteen miles east of Cambay city the bed of the gulf is reduced to six miles in breadth, and is dry at ebb-tide; but the crossing either on horse or foot is dangerous, the tide rushing furiously in, like the bore in the Calcutta river.—(*Elmore, Drummond, &c.*)

CAMBING.—A small island about thirty miles in circumference, lying off the north coast of Timor, between the eighth and ninth degrees of south latitude.

CAMBODIA *(Camboja)*.—A country of India beyond the Ganges, extending from Cape St. James in the China sea, to near the same parallel in the Gulf of Siam, thus comprehending the whole peninsula of Cambodia. In the interior, and along the great river of Cambodia, it stretches much further, reaching as far north as lat. 14°. The whole coast from Camao point, the southern extremity, up to the Cape Liaut of the Europeans, is an uninterrupted archipelago of beautiful islands, which appear like the tops of a chain of mountains, some above 1,000 feet high, extending along the coast of Cambodia, while the continent is low alluvial land, without hill or elevation. Among these islets the tides, which are strong and irregular, rise to unusual heights for such latitudes, in some places above fifteen feet. A mud flat commences at Cambodia point, and gradually increases in breadth from the land, until it terminates at the mouth of the Donnai river, where it spreads out to sea for above four leagues, the southern extremity of Asia here sinking into the ocean by very slow gradations.

The Cambodia river is said to have its source from a lake within the Chinese province of Yunan, and to be navigable for boats before it enters Laos, between the twenty-second and twenty-third degrees of north latitude. It is evidently one of the largest rivers of Asia, with a course (if the above conjecture be correct) of 1,500 miles, including windings; but it probably does not deliver to the ocean so large a body of water as the Ganges. It flows through the territories of Laos and Cambodia, joining the sea by three mouths about lat. 10° N.

The vegetable productions of this province are the same as those of the neighbouring countries of Siam and Ava. The colouring matter named gamboge derives its name from hence, being the concrete resinous juice of certain trees found here of a superior quality, but produced likewise in other parts of India. At present the exportable commodities are gamboge, cardamoms, eagle-wood, areca, ivory, sticklac, hides, horns, bones, dried fish, dye-woods, and timber for domestic and naval purposes. The quantity of teak-wood, however, is very small; the sort most used for ship and house-building and the artillery, is called in the native language sao, and is strong and durable, but its botanical character has not yet been ascertained. A hard black wood named quo, of large dimensions, and susceptible of a fine polish, is much used in cabinet work. This province also yields the Portuguese rose-wood,

which the Chinese export in considerable quantities. The Chinese and Macao Portuguese carry on a small traffic, importing silk goods, china, and lacquered ware, tea, sweetmeats, tin and tutenague, and exporting dried fish and the articles above-enumerated in return. Chantiban is one of the principal trading ports of Cambodia, and a considerable emporium for cardamoms and pepper. It stands a short distance inland, up a river only navigable for small boats. Cancao, or Athien, on the frontier of Cochin China, is the next mart of importance, and is also situated up a river which cannot be ascended by large vessels.

The Khomen language is used by a nation of that name who reside on the banks of the Mekon, or river of Cambu Cha't, or Cambodia. The Khomen are reckoned an ancient and learned people, and were formerly subdued by the T'hay J'hay, or ancient Siamese race. The modern T'hay, or Siamese, still denominate the Pali character Nangou Khom, or the Khomen letter, from this nation. They are not, however, supposed to have existed as a polished people so early as the Law (Laos), but are believed to have derived their origin from the warlike race of mountaineers named Kho, the Gueos of the Portuguese historians. The name of Camboja is often mentioned in the Ramayuna and other ancient Hindoo poems, where its horses are celebrated; but the designation probably refers to Cambay in Gujerat, as an intercourse is described as then subsisting between Camboja and Oude, the capital of the great Rama.

With the present condition of the interior we are still but little acquainted, and its religion can be only conjectured. Surrounded on all sides by nations professing the doctrines of Buddha, the majority of the inhabitants are also probably votaries of the same prophet. The accounts we have of the mountaineers assimilate them to the savage aborigines found all over the continent of India, where the Hindoo and Mahomedan religions have not penetrated, or made any lasting impression. The most numerous portion of the inhabitants on the sea-coast are native Cambodians; but the Anam, or Cochin Chinese, compose the governing class. The aborigines to the west of the great river, and bordering on Laos, are termed Mew.

In A.D. 1590 the king of Cambodia sent a mission to the governor of the Philippines, begging his assistance against the king of Siam. In 1820 this province was divided into three parts: one tributary to Siam, another to Cochin China, and a third independent. The two first-named divisions comprehend all the sea-coast; the third is several days' journey up the great river Cambodia. Its capital, named Panompin, is said to be populous, and inhabited besides natives by a considerable number of genuine Chinese. In 1819 the king of Cochin China interdicted to foreigners all direct commerce with his portion of Cambodia, having proclaimed Saigon the emporium of that province, and of all the southern divisions of Cochin China.—(*Singapoor Chronicle, Leyden, Lieut. White, Crawfurd, Staunton, De Bissachere, &c.*)

CAMBODIA.—A town of India beyond the Ganges, the ancient capital of the preceding province, but now in a decayed condition; lat. 13° N., lon. 104° 35′ E. By the Birmans it is named Lowaick, and stands on the river of Cambodia or Mekon, about 150 miles from the sea. It does not appear to have been visited since the time of the Portuguese ascendancy, and before the fervour of their missionaries had abated.—See also PANOMPIN, the name of the modern capital.

CAMIGTEN.—A small island, one of the Philippines, about ten miles in length by four the average breadth, situated due north of the Luzon. There is some trade carried on here for wax, gold, cocoa-nuts, and cassia.

CAMLAPOOR.—A town in the province of Bejapoor contiguous to the ruins of Bijanagur, of which it pro-

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